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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

Vol. LIX, No. 2
FEBRUARY 1949

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

In this issue . . .

Housing and the Economic Crisis in Great Britain, by Marian BOWLEY.

Job Classification in the Netherlands, by A. N. VAN MILL.

Holidays with Pay in the Construction Industries — Labour-Management Co-operation in the Undertaking: Recent Surveys in France, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada.

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

VOL. LIX, No. 2 FEBRUARY 1949

Housing and the Economic Crisis in Great Britain

by

Marian BOWLEY, Ph.D. (Econ.)

Proposals made in wartime for solving immediate post-war housing problems in various countries have been examined in earlier issues of the Review.[1] *As it may be interesting to study how far such proposals have been carried into effect, and with what success, the Office welcomes the opportunity to publish the following review of the situation in Great Britain, by the author of the previous article on that country. In her earlier article, Miss Bowley described these problems as seen about four years ago, and the measures proposed for dealing with them ; she also discussed questions of longer-term policy. In the following pages, the attempts actually made to solve the immediate problem of post-war shortage are discussed in relation to the condition of overemployment and the unfavourable balance of payments of Great Britain. This leads to a brief consideration of future policy, since, as the discussion demonstrates, the prospects of any housing policy in Great Britain are conditioned in no small measure by the general economic difficulties confronting the country.*[2]

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIX, No. 6, June 1944, pp. 608-629 : " Workers' Housing in Puerto Rico ", by Jacob CRANE ; Vol. L, No. 3, September 1944, pp. 300-315 : " Swedish Housing Policy in Wartime ", by Alf JOHANSSON ; No. 5, November 1944, pp. 603-625 : " Housing Problems in Great Britain ", by Marian BOWLEY ; Vol. LII, No. 1, July 1945, pp. 1-28 : " Housing in the United States : Problems and Policy ", by Catherine BAUER ; Vol. LV, Nos. 3-4, March-April 1947, pp. 227-246 : " The Housing Problem in France ", by Alfred SAUVY.

[2] For a general study of the relation between housing policy and employment, see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 8 : *Housing and Employment* (Geneva, 1948).

The Post-War Housing Shortage and the Economic Crisis

Extent of the Shortage

THE IMMEDIATE post-war shortage of houses in Great Britain was due to two main causes: the cessation of building early in 1940 necessitated by the war, although the number of families continued to increase ; and the damage to houses by the air raids of various sorts.[1] The former led to an accumulated need for about 325,000 houses by the end of 1945 [2], the latter to the necessity for the complete replacement of 217,000 houses and the repair in varying degrees of some 3,100,000.[3] If the probable increase in the number of families from 1945 to 1950 is taken into account, a further addition of about 250,000 must be made. Thus, the total number of houses required by 1950 in England and Wales to provide a house for each additional family since 1939, and to make good the houses destroyed during the war, may be estimated at about 800,000 as a minimum ; of this total about two thirds were required immediately at the end of the war. This total, it should be noted, includes no allowance for houses made uninhabitable by war damage but not destroyed, the assumption being that they will all be repaired ; nor does it include any allowance for houses requisitioned during the war for offices, etc., some of which may not revert to normal use as dwellings during the period under discussion. Requirements for the replacement of substandard working-class houses (other than those destroyed in the war) are also ignored.

In terms of the output of the housebuilding industry before the second World War, the magnitude of these minimum requirements is not alarming. In England and Wales the annual output of houses of all types was around 350,000 in

[1] All estimates of requirements relate to England and Wales only.

[2] Allowing for the 151,000 houses completed during the early part of the war.

[3] Figures provided by the War Damage Commission. These are probably an understatement, as in the Commission's figures a building containing dwellings is counted as one unit, however many separate dwellings it includes. Thus a block of flats destroyed counts for no more than a single private house destroyed.

1938 and 1939[1], so that these minimum needs represent less than three years' pre-war output of the industry working at full pressure. While it is true that nearly a third of the houses in the country were damaged to a greater or less extent during the war, sufficient repairs had been completed by 1946 to render three quarters of them habitable again. Thus, although war repairs were bound to be a considerable burden, in relation to the pre-war capacity of the industry, they would not have been crippling.

It was recognised as early as 1944, however, that some time must elapse between the end of the war and restoration of the capacity of building industry to pre-war levels. It was clear, too, that initially repair work would absorb an abnormally large share of building capacity. It was for these reasons that the policy of erecting temporary prefabricated houses was adopted as a first stage. The houses were to be manufactured in parts at factories and assembled on the sites, and would thus enable unusual materials to be used. In this way the pressure on the supply of traditional materials would be relieved and also the pressure on the building labour force, since the preparation of the sites and the actual erection would take only a few days and require mainly unskilled workers.

The Building Programme

In the first phase of the building programme after the war, therefore, the main new additions to the supply would be made by temporary prefabricated houses, while a large proportion of the resources of the ordinary housebuilding industry would be occupied in repairs and such conversions of large houses into flats as seemed practicable and desirable. In the second phase, as repair work and conversions declined and as the capacity of the industry increased, the contribution of the temporary prefabricated houses would decline relatively and absolutely. In the third phase, normal building of new houses would resume its importance, except in so far as new methods appeared advantageous for building houses of an ordinary duration of life.

[1] Ministry of Health: *House Production, Slum Clearance, etc.*, two six-monthly returns, showing the position at 30 September 1938 and 31 March 1939, respectively.

At first sight the programme appeared logical and realistic. Closer examination shows that it had two weaknesses: first, the assumption that rapid initiation and expansion of the manufacture of the temporary prefabricated houses would be possible; second, the assumption that the supplies of fittings, drains, baths, windows, etc.—which the temporary houses would required in common both with many repair and conversion jobs and with ordinary new building—would also show a rapid expansion from the low production levels of the war. Apparently, it was not fully realised that the prefabricated methods which were proposed economised mainly the materials required for the shell of traditional houses and some, but not all, classes of craftsmen. The saving of resources would thus be uneven.

An account of the programme as it was first conceived was given in my previous article in this journal, but it will be convenient to repeat it briefly here. The initial idea was that the temporary houses would be all of one type and constructed of steel, of which it was expected there would be a surplus immediately after the war. About 100,000 were to be provided by the end of the first production year, and after that they would be produced if required at the rate of 130,000 a year. It was assumed that by the end of the second year traditional building resources would be becoming increasingly plentiful and that 300,000 ordinary houses, including 50,000 in Scotland, would by then be under construction. No date was mentioned at the time for the completion of these permanent houses, but it was clear that reliance was placed on the supply of prefabricated houses mainly as a stopgap for the first two years.

By March 1945, the programme was assuming a more definite form and was set out in a White Paper.[1] The total building labour force was to be increased from its end-of-war level of 337,000 to 800,000 by the end of the first year after the end of the war in Europe, and housing work of all kinds, including repairs of war damage, was to be given highest civilian priority. The Government now committed itself to a completion date, namely, the end of the second year, for 220,000 out

[1] Cmd. 6609: *Housing* (London, March 1945). See also White Paper, Cmd. 6686: *Temporary Housing Programme* (London, October 1945).

of the 300,000 ordinary permanent houses. The plans for the temporay houses had meanwhile suffered a transformation. Changes in munitions production during 1944 meant that steel would not be available in the quantities anticipated in the summer of 1944, when expectations of a rapid end of the war in Europe were at their height. Other materials were, therefore, to be tried, such as asbestos-cement, concrete and timber, and it was hoped to import some 30,000 houses under Lease-Lend from the United States. Production of temporary houses was now regarded as definitely important only for 1945; the future of the scheme depended on the rapidity with which ordinary building capacity became available. But in any case at least 145,000 temporary houses would be provided, as that was the number for which local housing authorities had already applied.

Despite the unfounded optimism as to the rate at which ordinary houses would be completed, there was much wisdom in this White Paper. In particular, it pointed out that " only completed houses are of immediate service in relieving the housing shortage. As experience after the last war showed, a programme beyond the capacity of the building industry would have the result that many houses were started but few completed. Moreover, there would be a powerful pressure on prices if, in the early stages, more work was offered than the building industry could perform. "[1] In point of fact, the subsequent neglect of this warning led to many of the difficulties which have arisen. According to the White Paper, attempts were being made early in 1945 to ensure the production of appropriate quantities of fittings of various sorts, while standardisation was being pressed as a means of economising both labour and materials. Unfortunately the Government did not attempt to explain why it was expected that the complex industries producing the fittings required for 350,000 houses and for repairs in 1939 would be able to provide these fittings for between 365,000 and 445,000 houses, as well as all those needed for conversions and repairs, within two years of the end of the war. The industries in question had been turned over to war production, or partly closed down, and thoroughly dislocated during six years of war.

[1] *Housing, op. cit.*, para. 13.

It was not until the winter of 1946-47 that it was publicly admitted that, despite the warning contained in the White Paper of 1945, too many houses had been started at once, and too many were still being started, to enable a reasonable proportion to be finished in a reasonable time. Resources, it was now agreed, had been too thinly spread, so that only slow progress could be made towards the completion of houses. It was decided, therefore, to slow down the rate at which new houses were started so as to allow efforts to be concentrated on those already in course of erection, until some of the accumulations had been cleared off; this would allow a balanced flow of resources and houses in each stage.[1]

Effect of the Economic Crisis

The inadequacy of the resources available for the housing programme was in part the consequence of the more general shortages which have pervaded the British economy and which led to the cut in the capital programme in 1947. Indeed, the future of housing policy must depend on the extent to which resources can be spared from other requirements, and the way in which the discrepancies between these supplies and the building demand for them can be overcome. It would be out of place in an article concerned with housing to analyse the general shortages of materials and manpower in Great Britain in detail, but some reference to their effect on the capacity of the building industry is necessary.

In so far as the building industry requires imported materials, it competes with all other consumers of imports for foreign exchange. Although the most important imported material required for building is timber, a considerable number of others are required, such as lead, copper and linseed oil. In the field of home-produced materials the building industry competes with innumerable others and with the export drive —for steel and iron and steel products, for many types of fittings, and, indirectly, owing to the heavy requirements of the cement and brick industries, for coal. Finally, it competes generally for manpower and transport.

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[1] Cf. Cmd. 7021: *Housing Programme for 1947* (London, January 1947).

In the years between the two World Wars there was, broadly speaking, idle capacity in Great Britain in terms both of men and of plant, and the foreign exchange problem was not acute. It is true that immediately after the first World War the demand for buildings outran the capacity of the building industry, but the shortages were due to other causes than now. They arose from bottlenecks in the supplies of resources in a form specific to the building industry, such as skilled men, bricks, etc., caused by the difficulty of drawing enough resources quickly out of the general pool and converting them into specific forms; the general pool was more than adequate for the economy as a whole at the accepted standard of living. This time, the general pool is inadequate and the basic question has to be considered: how large a building industry can the country afford, or, in other words, how much can the country afford to invest in buildings of various sorts? In short, between the two wars, Ministers of Health could decide on a housing programme and be certain of being able to get the resources. Now, the situation is reversed, and the programme must be devised in terms of the resources available. This difference was not appreciated at the end of the second World War, and it was not until the economic crisis forced the issue to the forefront that the public generally, and the Government in particular, admitted that the difficulty existed at all. Indeed, the reverse was the case. An official committee set up during the war recommended higher standards of building and the recommendation was accepted.[1] Another committee suggested that the building force should be increased beyond its pre-war size. This too was agreed, the target for labour force being set at 1,250,000, instead of the 1,041,000 of 1939. While it was recognised that there would be some delay in reaching the labour target while men were deployed from war service, every effort was to be made to speed the process.[2]

On the demand side, public authorities concerned with housebuilding were urged to push ahead with the preliminary

[1] Cf. MINISTRY OF HEALTH: *Design of Dwellings*. Report of a Subcommittee of the Central Housing Advisory Council (London, 1944); MINISTRY OF HEALTH AND MINISTRY OF WORKS: *Housing Manual, 1944*.

[2] Cf. White Paper published in February 1943, Cmd. 6248: *Training for the Building Industry*. The preliminary target for a year after the end of the European war, *i.e.*, July 1946, was 800,000 *(Housing, op. cit.)*.

stages of making plans, acquiring sites, etc., so as to be ready to take full advantage of increasing capacity within the building industry. While this was a most sensible thing to do if the housing problem was considered in isolation, it was bound to lead to trouble in view of the plans being made for large capital projects in other fields and the necessity of increasing exports. Even before the economic crisis of 1947 it was recognised that if prices were to be prevented from rising to great heights, the wartime system of price controls and allocation of supplies must be retained. Unfortunately, the allocation system tended to take the form of giving a little to nearly everybody instead of concentrating resources on the most urgent schemes first.

Since the supplies of materials available for the building industry, as also their prices, depended on factors outside its possible sphere of control, they could not be related readily to progress towards achieving the target set for the building labour force. Forecasts of the allocations to the industry, or its direct material industries, were difficult to make. Not only might changing policy, with regard to steel exports for instance, alter them suddenly, but the total that would be available for allocation was often a matter of conjecture. It was still more difficult where materials for the building industry were one of a number of products of other industries ; for such industries would distribute their allocations among their products and a building industry component might fare well in one industry but, for doubtless good reasons, fare badly in another. Thus, although enough coal might be allocated to the brick industry for a particular target output, it was more than probable that not sufficient would reach the manufacturers of white porcelain fittings to enable them to provide the matching quantity of such items ; at the same time, the manufacturer of metal window frames might produce window frames on still another basis.

In such circumstances, smooth operation of any building programme would have been possible only if initially building activity had been kept at a sufficiently low level to permit stocks of all materials and components to accumulate, to act as a buffer against uneven flows of the various items. No attempt was made to do this, and the attempt to allocate uncertain supplies in face of an excessive demand in an

over-employed economy created programming problems of insuperable difficulty. Bottlenecks were inevitable.

It was not until the summer of 1947 that the general question of the proper relation of the resources going into building to those used for other purposes came to the fore in public discussion. The economic crisis of that summer forced the Government to reconsider the whole investment programme in relation to the country's resources, the imperative necessity of increasing exports and the apparently unsatisfactory level of productivity. It was at last recognised that there were two aspects to be considered : the total volume of investment practicable and the most economic way of making the investment. The ultimate decisions were inevitable : first, that the total volume must be reduced ; second, that the resources must be more concentrated, to avoid the wastes of resources due to delay and the inflated costs resulting from spreading those resources too thinly.[1] The second conclusion was in effect similar to that reached with regard to the housing programme a few months earlier.

In view of these decisions the question of the size of the building industry and the number of building projects had to be reviewed and thus the resources being absorbed by the housing programme. The general decision was as follows. The labour force of the building industry was to cease to expand and, if possible, would be slightly decreased. Factory building, except in the areas scheduled for special development, was to be severely limited. Other building projects were to be severely scrutinised; but the limitations set to the housing programme were somewhat vague. The number of houses under construction was to be reduced from the current level of 250,000 to 140,000 by mid-1949, by limiting the number of houses started and concentrating still more on the completion of those already begun. Moreover, new housing schemes were to be fitted to the general economic requirements of the country by giving priority to houses for agricultural workers and coal miners, since the need for increasing the labour forces of these industries was more

[1] Cf. White Paper, Cmd. 7344 : *Economic Survey for 1948* (London, March 1948), Chapter III. For a summary of this White Paper, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVIII, No. 2, August 1948, p. 205.

obviously acute, while at the same time it arose in areas with very poor supplies of houses.

The future of the housing programme has been left vague ever since. It has been recognised unwillingly that the amount of resources devoted to housing must depend on the general economic situation of the country, and that it is improbable that within the next few years, until indeed the British balance of payments situation has been re-established, a larger proportion can be devoted to it than at present. On the contrary, it is not impossible that once the acuteness of the post-war shortage of houses is overcome, there will be a strong case for diminishing the allocation. The most recent statement [1] by the Minister for Health, indeed, fundamentally indicates a somewhat limited goal for policy. His aim, he states, is to ensure that there is a separate dwelling for every family. This is a goal which runs only in terms of a few hundreds of thousands and is a very different one from rebuilding and clearing the slums and substandard houses of the industrial towns and rural areas. It is an approximate goal, and the speed at which it is attained depends entirely on the amount of resources allowed and the efficiency with which they are used. The former ought to be decided in the light of general economic conditions, but the latter ought to be within the control of the housing authorities. The rest of this article is therefore concerned with the problem of efficiency in the use of housebuilding resources.

Expansion of the Resources of the Building Industry

Analysis of the Problem

Even admitting the failure to recognise the fundamental problem created by shortages of all resources in Great Britain, the post-war attitude to increasing building capacity can be understood only by reference to the inter-war period. It was based largely on the assumption that the essential character of the problem was unchanged. At the end of the first World

[1] Speech by the Minister at the opening of new flats in London on 23 October 1948.

War, the resources of labour and materials for building were much depleted, while there was an overwhelming demand for both. Restoration to the 1914 level would not have been enough. The economy was expanding with an increasing population and increases in the number of families by about 100,000 a year. The requirements for additional houses to keep pace with the annual increase in the number of families was sufficient to use the full pre-war housebuilding capacity. In addition, the accumulated arrears due to the wartime interruption of building were sufficient to use that pre-war capacity to the full for possibly six years, quite apart from improvements in standards or replacements of old houses and slums. Similar conditions obtained with respect to the demand for other buildings.[1] The post-1919 building industry needed to be on an altogether bigger scale than the pre-1914 industry. Expansion of the industry naturally took time, in fact, about ten years.

The pace of expansion depended in practice mainly on the labour force of the industry itself, since the trade unions had to be convinced of the need for great expansion compared with pre-1914. On the other hand, as the economy rapidly developed idle capacity, the expansion of building materials, after the initial acute shortages and dislocation, took place without friction and reasonably in step with the demand. But by 1939 the picture was very different. The population was within sight of ceasing to grow. The size of the building industry required to meet the expansion of the economic system, it could be foreseen, would be far below the maximum level of 1939. Unless the demand for houses was increased by an official policy of replacing substandard houses, the housebuilding industry would be facing serious unemployment in a foreseeable time. The interruption due to the second World War postponed this development, but it did not alter the underlying trend.[2] Restoration of the building industry to at least the 1939 level, however, seemed natural and desirable to everyone who remembered vividly the shortages and slow rate of expansion of the industry after 1919 and were ignorant of the differences in underlying trends. The more rapidly

[1] See Marian BOWLEY: *Housing and the State*, 1919-1944 (London, George Allen & Unwin, reprinted 1947), p. 11.

[2] *Ibid.*, Chapters II and IV.

the restoration took place, the more rapidly, it was argued, would the accumulated shortage be overcome. This has been the dominant popular influence, accompanied by the belief that because the difficulty of expanding the labour force was the chief limiting factor after the first World War, it must be so after the second. This has led to concentration of effort on expanding the actual labour force of the building industry, rather than on expanding it in step with supplies of building materials.

Expansion of the Labour Force

Plans were considered as early as 1943 [1] to provide for an expansion of the building labour force on the cessation of hostilities. These schemes had two parts and both were put into operation at the end of the war. The first consisted in arrangements for priority release from the services of certain types of skilled workers; the second in the arrangement of special training schemes, and the relaxation of trade union rules, to allow adult men to complete their training as skilled workers in a short period instead of the full normal period of apprenticeship. On the whole, these plans worked very smoothly, and though men entered the industry, or returned to it, through other channels, much of the rapidity of the expansion in 1946 must be attributed to these plans. In July 1945 the number of insured workers in the building industry was 337,000; by July 1946 it had increased to 715,000, about 10 per cent. short of the target; a year later the figure was 830,000, of whom about 817,000 were employed, compared with 922,000 actually employed in May-July 1939.[2] A great part of the recovery of labour force was due, of course, to the return of ex-members from the services or munitions industries. The new entrants were required to make good the wastage during the war years and provide for the relatively small expansion required by the target.

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[1] Cf. *Training for the Building Industry* (London, 1943), report of the Central Council for Works and Buildings (appointed by the Ministry of Works), and the White Paper with the same title, *op. cit.*

[2] Ministry of Labour returns of insured workers. The numbers actually at work in the building industry have been a much higher proportion of the total than before the war; then, in good years, such as 1936 and 1938, 11 per cent. were unemployed even in the summer.

Although it is believed that the age composition is rather higher than before the war, the general distribution of the force between different trades is approximately the same. Labour shortages have been general, however, despite the rapid increase of the labour force. Even by the second half of 1947, when the employed labour force had returned to about 89 per cent. of its 1938 level, there was an average of about one man working on each house, compared with an estimated pre-war average of 1.5 to 2 men [1]; in 1946 and the early part of 1947 the difference was still greater.

Expansion of the Supply of Materials

The record of the expansion of the materials available for the building industry displays a considerable contrast with that of the labour force. Not only had the supplies of certain materials fallen during the war relatively more than the labour force, but the difficulties of re-expansion were in practice much greater.

At the end of the war the output of building materials was far below pre-war levels. The average monthly output of building bricks, by far the most important material used for the shells of houses, was 101 million as compared with 610 million in 1938, and the output of cement was about 60 per cent. of its 1938 level.[2] Other building materials, and particularly fittings, were in a similar or worse condition. The expansion of these industries to a level sufficient to support any sort of building programme depended on three things: the supply of materials, particularly fuel; the reopening of plant, or the reconversion to its pre-war uses of plant turned over to war production; and the rebuilding of their labour forces. In some cases one, in others another, difficulty proved the most important. In the case of bricks, and all heavy earthenware goods, the great difficulty, apart from the collapse of fuel supplies during the coal crisis of the winter of 1946-47, was the supply of labour. Brick works were unpopular, now

[1] MINISTRY OF HEALTH: *The Cost of House-Building. First Report of the Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Minister of Health* (London, October 1948).

[2] Ministry of Health monthly housing returns.

that there were unlimited other jobs available. The dirty and heavy character of the work, the isolated situations on the brick fields, were disliked, and the attractions of competing industries, such as agriculture, in which wages and conditions had improved greatly relatively to others during the war, drew labour away.

Table I shows the indices of average monthly output each quarter for a number of materials and components from 1945 to the middle of 1948; where possible, the monthly average for 1938 has been included for comparison.

TABLE I. INDICES OF OUTPUT OF IMPORTANT BUILDING MATERIALS AND FITTINGS, 1938-1948 [1]

(1945=100)

Date	Monthly average				
	Bricks	Cement	Plaster-board	Baths	Rainwater goods [2]
1938	567	168	[4]	317 [5]	[4]
1945 [3]	100	100	100	100	100
1946					
1st quarter	142	108	131	155	122
2nd ,, ...	247	150	136	215	122
3rd ,, ...	313	157	131	225	130
4th ,, ...	368	163	151	277	163
1947					
1st ,, ...	279	88	117	233	462
2nd ,, ...	355	159	152	295	
3rd ,, ...	379	178	156	295	504
4th ,, ...	393	185	175	384	529
1948					
1st ,, ...	355	171	180	370	469
2nd ,, ...	341	189	193	394	425

[1] Calculated from information in the Ministry of Health monthly housing returns.
[2] Based on tons of cast iron used.
[3] Averages of July and December.
[4] Not available.
[5] Estimated on the assumption that every new house built in 1938 had at least one bath, and that some baths were needed for miscellaneous buildings, such as hotels, schools, etc.

The sharp contrast between bricks and cement is clearly shown. Though the output of the former had increased by

the last quarter of 1946 by 268 per cent. as compared with 1945, it was still at not quite two thirds of the 1938 level. Cement production, on the other hand, had not been so drastically reduced during the war, and a rise of 63 per cent. during 1946 brought it nearly back to the 1938 level. Since then, apart from the collapse of output during the fuel crisis of the winter of 1946-47, it has run consistently slightly above that of 1938. In contrast, the output of bricks remained at rather less than two thirds of the 1938 level, and was evidently inadequate to support a volume of building activity approaching the pre-war level unless either a great reservoir of stocks had been available, or substitute materials had been extensively used, or the nature of the work done had been very different. Stocks were, in fact, virtually exhausted by the end of 1946 ; the increase in cement output has not been sufficient to compensate for the low output of bricks, and there are limits to its use as a substitute ; the closing down of the temporary houses programme and the increased change-over to ordinary housebuilding has diminished the difference in type of work done.[1] In actual fact there were signs of a serious brick famine by the beginning of 1947.

Of the other three items included in table I, the course of plasterboard production closely follows that of cement ; unfortunately, there are no pre-war data for comparison, but plasterboard was in acutely short supply even in 1948. The output of baths and rainwater goods increased far more rapidly, particularly in 1947. An estimate of pre-war output of the former has been included in the table, and though very approximate it probably errs on the side of an underestimate rather than an overestimate ; it is evident that output did not reach pre-war levels before the last quarter of 1947. From the beginning of January 1946 to the end of June 1948 about 737,000 baths were produced, but only 277,000 of them were produced during 1946. Minimum requirements, as there were not substantial stocks, were about 150,000 for dwellings [2] completed during the year, plus a contribution towards other miscellaneous requirements for war damage repairs, hotels,

[1] See below, pp. 142 *et seq.*

[2] Including ordinary permanent houses, dwellings in converted houses and temporary prefabricated houses. See housing returns of the Ministry of Health.

etc., plus 180,000 for the houses under construction at the end of the year; many of these had been under construction for six months to a year, and two thirds had been started more than three months before the end of the year.[1] It is not surprising that the supply of baths formed yet one more bottleneck during 1946.

These illustrations suffice to show that some components have been scarcer than others and that supplies of materials have tended to be inadequate to requirements and out of step with each other. Although no rigid relationship between materials and labour can be found in the building industry while the composition of demand has been abnormal, it is evident that the supply of building labour returned to something nearer the pre-war norm much more rapidly than the supplies of materials. The irregularities in the expansion of supplies of materials tell their own tale therefore. In relation to each other and to the labour force, supplies of various materials were badly out of line, a fact that could only have a disastrous effect on productivity per man-hour if the whole labour force were employed. The whole labour force was approximately employed for the very simple reason that so much work was started that the labour force proved insufficient in relation to it. Labour was thinly spread, and materials still more so. The effects of this on costs and productivity in connection with the housing programme are considered below.

Efficiency in the Use of the Available Resources

The minimum requirements for dwellings in England and Wales to replace those totally destroyed in the war and provide for the net increase in the number of families from 1939 to 1950 has been estimated, as already stated, at 800,000. Of these, about 550,000 were needed already in 1945 and probably another 150,000 before the end of 1948, giving a total required up to the end of 1948 of about 700,000. From the beginning of 1945 up to the end of August 1948 about 550,000 dwellings were provided to meet the requirements defined in this way. The total comprises about 316,000 new permanent houses, about 147,000 provided through the scheme for temporary

[1] See below.

prefabricated houses, the conversion of camps, etc., and perhaps about 80,000 [1] from a net increase in accommodation due to the conversion of large houses into flats. The figures are given in detail in table II. The actual shortage of accommodation is greater than that indicated by these figures, because they do not allow for the requisitioning of houses for offices during the war and not yet returned or for houses not destroyed but unoccupied owing to severe war damage, etc.[2]

TABLE II. PROVISION OF HOUSING ACCOMMODATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES, 1945, TO 31 AUGUST 1948 [1]

Number of dwellings (thousands)

Date	Permanent dwellings		Temporary dwellings		Total new dwellings	Repair of unoccupied war-damaged houses
	New houses	Conversions into flats, etc.	Prefabricated houses	In camps, etc.		
1945	1.3	8.6	8.9	2.8	21.6	60.8
1946						
January-June . .	10.8	36.0	21.7	0.6	167.9	46.5
July-Dec.	40.3		49.2	9.3		
1947						
January-June . .	48.9	19.2	17.9	2.2	88.2	12.1
July-Dec.	78.6	15.8	16.5	2.8	113.7	7.7
1948						
January-June . .	103.1	15.0	9.2	3.8	131.1	5.6
July and August .	33.8	5.1	1.0	0.7	40.6	1.6
Total [2]	316.8 [3]	99.7 [4]	124.4	22.2	563.1	134.3

[1] Taken from Ministry of Health housing returns. Houses requisitioned during the war and now returned to normal use amounted to 27,200, but these have not been included in the table.

[2] The corresponding totals for Scotland are (in thousands): 29.1; 3.6; 30.3; 2.5; 65.5; nil. Houses requisitioned and now returned to normal use number 3,400.

[3] Fourteen per cent. of these new houses were built by non-traditional methods, *e.g.*, of prefabricated aluminium.

[4] It seems that these statistics are gross, *i.e.*, if a house is converted into 4 flats, it is counted as 4 units although the net addition to the number of dwellings is only 3. As no information is available on this point, it seems reasonable to deduct one fifth before using the total as a net figure.

[1] See table II, note 4.

[2] Although the numbers of houses derequisitioned and the numbers of houses made uninhabitable by severe damage which have been repaired since the beginning of 1945 are known (see table II, note 1), the numbers still remaining in these categories are not available.

At the end of June 1948, there were 166,000 permanent houses under construction in England and Wales, on which, it is estimated, about 212,000 men were employed out of a total of 473,000 engaged on housing work. This would appear to be a satisfactory number of houses from the point of view of the housing shortage, if any reliance could be placed on the probability of the rapid completion of the houses. The figures in table III indicate, however, that if the experience of the recent past is a guide to the future, then rapid completion is unlikely.

TABLE III. PERCENTAGE OF HOUSES STILL UNDER CONSTRUCTION (ENGLAND AND WALES) AT CERTAIN DATES, ACCORDING TO PRESUMED PERIOD OF COMMENCEMENT [1]

Period in which houses started	Percentage of houses under construction at end of					
	December 1946	June 1947	September 1947	December 1947	March 1948	June 1948
1946						
Jan.-June . .	36	6				
July-Sept. . .	33	28	16			
Oct.-Dec. . .	31	26	25	21		
1947						
Jan.-Mar. . .		15	14	15	15	
Apr.-June . .		25	23	25	27	15
July-Sept. . .			22	23	26	29
Oct.-Dec. . .				16	18	20
1948						
Jan.-Mar. . .					14	15
Apr.-June . .						21
	100	100	100	100	100	100

[1] Based on Ministry of Health housing returns.

The table demonstrates in fact what has become one of the main problems of the housing programme: the great increase in the length of time between starting and finishing a house. For instance, of the 166,000 houses under construction in England and Wales at the end of June 1948, probably 64 per cent. had been started six months or more previously, including 29 per cent. which had been started at least nine

months, and 15 per cent. at least a year, previously. Before the war the ordinary length of time taken to complete a house was regarded as round about six months; since the war it has been between twelve and eighteen months.

This increase in the length of time taken in building a house is one aspect of the problems of costs and the programming of the use of resources. These questions are further discussed below.

Prices of Housebuilding Materials

The index of prices of housebuilding materials (weighted according to the relative importance of the materials in houses) shows an increase of 97 per cent. over 1939 in May 1947, and 108 per cent. in February 1948.[1] The general index of all materials shows increases of 92 per cent. and 125 per cent. respectively over the same periods.[2] Thus on the whole building materials have not increased in price disproportionately. This is not to say that they have all risen to the same extent. Timber, for instance, the chief imported material, had increased by about 300 per cent. by 1947. The actual increase in the cost of materials may, however, differ from the increase in their prices because, owing to the shortages, it is not always possible to obtain exactly the quality and specification required. For instance, the builder is no longer able to buy his timber sawn in the appropriate lengths and dressed, and this involves additional labour in the builder's yard as well as more waste from odd lengths. Both the volume of imports of timber and internal prices are controlled by the Government, but it has, in fact, no control over the price that has to be paid, which depends directly on world prices and freight rates. Moreover, since the war it has been impossible to obtain timber in adequate quantities from the normal source of supply, eastern Europe and the Baltic, and relatively more has been imported from the New World and is thus subject to higher freight costs.[3] Mention has already been made of the dependence of the prices of other materials on the factors affecting the general price level, as in the case of bricks and cement, of which the building industry is effec-

[1] Ministry of Works index of building prices.
[2] Board of Trade index of industrial materials and manufactures prices.
[3] Ministry of Health housing returns.

tively the sole consumer. Thus, to the extent that the prices of building materials affect the cost of housebuilding, this cost depends mainly on the general economic conditions and price levels of the whole country.

Wages in the Building Industry

Hourly wage rates in the building industry increased between December 1939 and November 1947 by 65 per cent. for skilled, and 73 per cent. for unskilled, men. In addition, changes in conditions of employment have been made, in particular, through the introduction of a week's holiday with pay[1] and the "wet-time agreement", which in effect guarantees a weekly employment of 32 hours for man on work interrupted by bad weather; in the past, men were merely stood off without pay. These changes are estimated as equivalent to a further 9 per cent. increase on the 1939 rates.[2] The general index of wage rates for all industries shows an increase of 71.4 per cent. since 1939[3], so that the rates in the building industry are not out of step with the general movement. Earnings, as distinct from wage rates, in the industry have been affected by variations in the extent to which overtime has been worked and permitted and by the use of piece rates or bonus payments on certain classes of Government work carried over from the war.[4] Such use had gradually declined to very minor importance, but after much negotiation in the industry a scheme for the payment of piece rates has at last been introduced as part of the regular wage structure. The chief features of the agreement are, first, that schemes are to be introduced by agreement on individual jobs and worked out for that job, and secondly that they are to be arranged so as to enable an ordinary worker to earn at least 20 per cent. in excess of the time rate. The plan is

[1] See the article published in this issue, pp. 173-191: "Holidays with Pay in the Construction Industries".

[2] Figure based on Ministry of Labour returns and *The Cost of House-Building, op. cit.*, Statistical Appendix.

[3] London & Cambridge Economic Service index of wage rates.

[4] Average weekly earnings in the industry were 72 per cent. higher in October 1947 than in October 1939, for approximately the same number of hours worked per week. This must be compared with the increase in wage rates before the rises in December 1939 and November 1947; the difference in dates reduces the increases in rates by just over 1.5.

too recent to allow any conclusions to be drawn as to its effects on costs or productivity. Fears are expressed that the basic standards of output are assessed too low, as they are based on wartime experience when the average age of the labour force was considerably higher, and that, owing to the 20 per cent. excess earnings condition, the direct effect in reducing costs will be small.

The Cost of Housebuilding

It has already been pointed out that since before the war, the normal period between the commencement and completion of an ordinary local authority house has about doubled. Since then, according to official estimates [1], the cost of building a house of the same type as that commonly built in 1938-39 has increased by 140 per cent. The detailed composition of this increase is shown in table IV.

TABLE IV. ANALYSIS OF INCREASE IN THE COST OF BUILDING A LOCAL AUTHORITY HOUSE OF 1938-39 TYPE BETWEEN 1938-39 AND 1947

Item of cost	Percentage increase on 1938-39 cost for each item	Percentage of total increase due to each item
Labour :		
Extra man-hours required in 1947 at 1938-39 wages, etc.	45	10.0
Increase in wages, etc., 1938-39 to 1947 :		
1938-39 man-hours	81	18.0
Extra man-hours, 1947 . . .	34	7.6
Total labour	160	35.6
Materials	125	53.2
Plant, overheads and profits . . .	175	11.2
Total cost	140	100.0

Source : *The Cost of House-Building, op. cit.*, Chapter III, tables A and E.

The largest increase in cost was due to the rise in prices of materials ; this accounted for just over half the whole increase

[1] *The Cost of House-Building, op. cit.*

and showed a rise of 125 per cent. over 1938-39.[1] The rise in labour costs, which accounted for just over a third, stood at 160 per cent. of the 1938-39 figure. This was made up of two elements : an increase of 45 per cent. in the number of man-hours required (equivalent to a decrease in productivity of 31 per cent.) and an increase in wage costs per man-hour.[2] The former, reckoned at the pre-war wage costs per man-hour, was responsible, however, as the table shows, for only a relatively small part of the whole increase in costs. The latter enhanced the cost of the extra man-hours required as well as the cost of the normal number of man-hours required, and was twice as important.

Great importance is attached to the calculation of the decline in productivity, since it reflects the change in the efficiency of the building industry and its cure may be regarded as being at least in part within the control of the industry and the Ministries responsible for building. Changes in wage costs per man-hour and in material prices, on the other hand, are reflections, as has been pointed out, of changes in the general price and wage levels and are thus outside that control.

As a result of the recommendations of the committee on the design of dwellings [3], the normal standard of houses built by local authorities has risen as compared with before the war. Normal floor space has been increased by about 17 per cent. ; outbuildings are also provided now ; and the quality of building specifications and the supply of fittings have been improved. The calculable effects on costs of these improvements under present conditions are shown in table V ; they amount to 87 per cent. of the cost of the pre-war type of house built under pre-war conditions of prices, wages and productivity. The cost of the improvement in 1938-39 would have been equal to an increase of 36 per cent. The increase in the cost of materials required for the improvements is the most important element at both dates, followed by labour costs. Still more important perhaps, the improvements require

[1] This differs from the increase shown by the index of material prices owing partly to the weighting of the index and partly to the increase in cost as distinct from price of materials referred to on p. 145 above.

[2] Including payments on account of holidays with pay, the wet-time agreement, etc., as well as actual wage rates per hour.

[3] Cited above, p. 133, note 1.

an increase of about a third in the quantities of materials used, and a similar increase in the case of labour, thus increasing the pressure on resources inevitably in short supply.[1]

TABLE V. ANALYSIS OF INCREASES IN COST DUE TO IMPROVEMENTS INTRODUCED IN HOUSES BUILT IN 1947 [1]

Item	Percentage of total cost of improvements		Cost of improvements as percentage of cost in 1938-39 of 1938-39 type house	
	at 1938-39 prices, etc.	at 1947 prices, etc.	in 1938-39	in 1947
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Additional labour costs:				
Extra man-hours required at 1938-39 wages:				
1938 output	30	13	11	
Additional required 1947 output	—	6	—	28
Increase in wages, 1938-39 to 1947	—	14	—	
Total additional labour costs	30	33	11	28
Additional materials cost	61	57	22	50
Additional plant, overheads and profits	9	10	3	9
Total cost of improvements	100	100	36	87
Increased cost 1938-39 to 1947 without improvements . .	—	—	—	140
Total increased cost of 1947 type house on 1938-39 type	—	—	36	227

[1] Based on *The Cost of House-Building, op. cit.*, Chapter III, Table A.

The position shown by tables IV and V may be summarised as follows: a reversion to the 1938-39 type of house would reduce the cost of providing a house by more than a third; a return to 1938 productivity would reduce current costs of the pre-war type of house by about 18 per cent. at current wage rates; these changes would still leave the cost of the

[1] *The Cost of House-Building, op. cit.* These proportions are obtained by applying the figures in column 4 of table V to the composition of costs of a 1938-39 type house built in 1938-39, as given in the report.

new type of house at 115 per cent. above the pre-war cost of the pre-war type. These means of reducing costs are, it may be presumed, more or less controllable, and it is chiefly by the decisions taken on them that the housing authorities can influence the number of houses built.

The Productivity of Labour

" Changes in the productivity of labour " is a convenient omnibus name for changes in a group of factors affecting the final amount of labour required for housebuilding. Broadly, there are three aspects : the personal productivity of the individual men in the sense of their skill, their physical ability and their willingness to use those qualities ; the efficiency of the management, or, in other words, the skill with which the management organises supplies and work in particular circumstances ; finally, the external factors, the extent to which the management is helped or hampered by the general availability of resources and the circumstances of the contract. All these influences appear in their impact on costs in terms of the quantity and cost of labour required to complete a job and, directly or indirectly, in overheads and profits.

The apparent decline in the productivity of the housebuilding industry is estimated by the Ministry of Health Committee on Costs as about 31 per cent. in terms of labour required. The conclusion of the Committee is that this is due primarily to the failure in programming. That is to say, housebuilding projects have not been kept in step with the available supplies of labour and material. The data included above in the section dealing with the expansion of resources indicate how evident that failure to keep step has been. Too many houses of too elaborate specification have been started for the labour force which has been available. As figures are not available for materials usage as between different types of buildings, it has not been possible to make calculations, except for an odd item such as baths; but comparisons between pre-war and post-war outputs of materials partly explain the shortages which are generally recognised.

Why, however, should this failure to keep step cause such a decline in productivity ? It is wellknown that the two

phenomena occur together. They appeared in Great Britain immediately after the first World War, and also, it is commonly believed, in the building industry during the early period of the second World War, particularly prior to the setting up of the Ministry of Works. They have been authoritatively regarded as a general characteristic of the overemployed economy of Great Britain.[1] The reasons are not very far to seek. If there is an inadequate supply of labour for the projects started, then two difficulties occur. The employer finds it difficult to obtain the different types of labour he requires just when he requires them. Not only is he likely to work with an unbalanced labour force, but owing to the difficulty of getting men, he will hold on to those he will want again later, even if there is inadequate work for them to do in the meantime. This, of course, increases wage costs on each project, and also intensifies the general shortage of labour. If there are also inadequate flows of materials, then this intensifies the shortage of labour and the labour costs. This comes about by diminishing the controllable output of workers and further increasing the tendency to hoard labour on made-up work. Men who know that materials are running out inevitably go slow; there is no reason to do otherwise, since either they will be dismissed or they will merely have to dawdle about, filling in time. Employers anxious to keep their labour force together have no reason to discourage this. Indeed, they will try to make unnecessary work while waiting for the essential materials. Thus the shortage of labour is made worse by the very fact of this shortage, and shortages of materials and uncertain deliveries further enhance it. Inevitably, man-hours and costs go up. Overheads of course, are similarly inflated, for the builder's capital is locked up in the structure, and his equipment and office capacity are not freed for other work.

These conditions have posed a new problem to the industry. In the past, except just after the first World War, materials have always been available at short notice with the help of a most elaborate system of merchanting and deliveries[2];

[1] Cf. *Economic Survey for 1948, op. cit.*

[2] For an authoritative account of the organisation of merchanting services, etc., see MINISTRY OF WORKS: *The Distribution of Building Materials and Components. Report of the Committee of Enquiry appointed by the Minister of Works* (London, March 1948).

today, not only is this not so, but even if the builder attempts to avoid delays by placing orders in advance, he still has no guarantee that he will actually get the goods at the right time. Similarly, in the past the builder has employed labour just for the time he needed it; it passed in and out of the general pool. Now there is no general pool. To avoid the additional costs of retaining labour, despite temporary lack of necessary work, there must be a finer degree of forecasting labour needs than hitherto on the part of the individual builder; but as long as supplies of materials are erratic, nonsense is apt to be made of any plans. In short, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that the major cause of the dislocation of the building industry is the lack of adequate stocks of materials and of a smooth inflow and outflow to and from stocks. If this were once overcome, it would not be beyond the capacity of many builders to plan their labour requirements. It would require more mental effort on the part of many builders than was needed in pre-war conditions; but, provided plans are not liable to disruption by material difficulties, it is not unreasonable to expect that effort to be made over a wider field than at present.

General Conclusions on the Future of Housing Policy

The formulation of a housing policy for Great Britain in practicable terms is far more difficult now than in the decades between the two World Wars. Housing programmes can no longer be considered in isolation from the general economic problems of the country, because there are no longer idle resources in the country. The quantity of men and materials that can be used for housing depends on the relative importance attributed to more, or better, houses as against more of other goods and services. In evaluating the importance of alternative uses of resources, both the urgency of the need for houses and the effectiveness of the building industry in producing them are relevant. The need for houses falls under two heads: (1) making good the shortage due to war damage, lack of building during the war years and failure to keep pace with

additions to the number of families; (2) replacing houses which are substandard, some of them to a very serious extent. [1]

At present the former need appears to be regarded as the more important, both by the public and the Government, and there are, indeed, many signs that interest in the replacement problem, and the consequent building of new towns, has slipped into the background. Meanwhile, though the post-war shortage is by no means overcome, considerable, if expensive progress has been made. The possibility cannot be ruled out that in the next few years, at least until Great Britain's economy is re-established on a more stable basis, we shall see a contraction in the scale of housing programmes to a level sufficient only to keep pace with increases in the number of families. Since the size of the housebuilding industry today would be excessive for such programmes, it would be necessary for labour and resources to find employment elsewhere, probably outside the building industry altogether.

The cost of housebuilding is not irrelevant in this context. Although the prices of materials and rates of wages in the building industry are likely to continue to keep in step with those of the economy as a whole, the serious decline in productivity of the industry has increased the real cost of houses. Some improvement in productivity would probably encourage an active housing policy and the maintenance of employment in housebuilding, since it would dispel the conviction that scarce resources are being wasted. Paradoxical though it may seem, the most hopeful means of increasing productivity at present is to reduce the strain on the capacity of the industry. Apart from reducing the volume of building for other purposes, this can only be done by reducing the number of houses in the programme below current levels, or by reducing the standard and size of houses built to something nearer the pre-war level. It is far from clear what decisions will be taken on any of these matters. It seems probable, however, that if no improvement occurs, housing policy will break down under the burden of its own costs, as happened after the first World War.

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[1] This problem was discussed at some length in my previous article in this *Review, loc. cit.*; see also *Housing and the State, 1919-1944, op. cit.*

Job Classification in the Netherlands

by

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The occupational qualifications of persons seeking work and the details of job vacancies form one of the subjects touched on in the Convention and the Recommendation on employment service organisation which the International Labour Conference adopted at its 31st Session, held in San Francisco in 1948. Furthermore, among the tasks laid upon the International Labour Office in connection with the practical programme of work on manpower problems on which it is at present engaged is that of ascertaining, in respect of Europe, the requirements of countries for foreign labour and the surpluses available to meet them, a task which necessitates an analysis and comparison of the occupational nomenclature and descriptions of occupations in various countries.

In pursuance of this task, the Office has had occasion to study the system of job classification used by the Employment Service in the Netherlands, one of the few countries where such a classification has been made. It is indebted to the Director-General of that service for the following description of the methods adopted in order to place " the right men in the right jobs ". The Netherlands system possesses certain features which are unique and it merits careful study by all interested in the question.

ANYONE familiar with the work of an employment service knows that it always has to contend with two great difficulties. In the first place it often happens that the supply of jobs in a particular locality and in particular occupations exceeds

the demand while there is, at the same time, a surplus of manpower in other occupations, with the result that unemployment and labour shortage are found side by side. The second difficulty lies in the fact that one of the most persistent aims of any employment service—to put the right man in the right place—is still very far from being attained in the present state of society. But even though it is easier to point out these defects than to discover a remedy, yet a closer study of the two phenomena suggests that a way can be found in the future.

Clearly, the existence of manpower shortages and surpluses side by side, and the inability to match the one against the other, is largely due to the tacit assumption that transfers from one trade to another are virtually impossible—an assumption which derives in essence from the universal practice of engaging workers simply according to the names given to their occupations. The problem appears in a different light, however, if instead of using the names of occupations as the criterion, which give very little idea of the requirements for performing the jobs in question, those requirements themselves, which cannot be defined without a fuller knowledge of the occupations, are taken as a guide.

Very much the same observation applies to the difficulty of putting the right man in the right place. When a man chooses an occupation or accepts a job, there is very seldom an enquiry as to what requirements it involves or as to whether his aptitude and skill enable him to meet them. As soon as these matters receive more attention, the second problem also will be a step nearer solution.

Removal of both the defects mentioned thus requires a better knowledge of the different occupations, in addition to which the second calls also for a better knowledge of men and women. The human aspect is left out of account in the following study, which aims at showing that the necessary better knowledge of occupations can be obtained through an efficient job classification.

What is Job Classification ?

Job classification implies the grouping of jobs by some positive criterion. It is, of course, possible to list them alpha-

betically in order to facilitate reference or to tabulate them industry by industry or to arrange them by their economic or national importance. But such procedures are not properly covered by the term " job classification ", since they are based on considerations that have only an incidental bearing on the jobs. Job classification proper is based on the character of the different jobs and may be defined as an arrangement of jobs according to their work content.

There are various ways of grouping jobs according to their content. They may be placed in " families " so as to indicate how far they are interchangeable and thus to promote mobility of labour, the object chosen for the purposes of the present article. They may be arranged by value or by difficulty, with a view to determining relative rates of wages ; and other groupings are conceivable.

Any of these classifications requires first a review of all known jobs. Next the work content of each job is defined by means of an analysis. The results of the job analysis are then used to determine the requirements of each job, that is, the physical and mental qualifications and the training needed for performing it. Finally, a comparison of the job requirements enables the desired classification to be made. The whole process thus falls into four stages : (1) job inventory ; (2) job analysis ; (3) definition of job requirements ; (4) job classification. Each of these stages is discussed below in turn and its most important features are pointed out.

First of all, however, attention should be called to the great difference between job classification as defined above and the industrial classification compiled by the Statistical Commission of the United Nations.[1] The object of the latter classification is to group, not jobs as such, but the various types of undertakings throughout the whole field of industry and so to permit the compilation of comparable statistics on a variety of industrial subjects. The question may arise whether employment and unemployment statistics should henceforth be based on an industrial or on a job classification. It seems to me that, for the present, preference should be given to an

[1] Cf. UNITED NATIONS ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL : *Official Records*, Third Year, 7th Session, Supplement No. 58 : "Statistical Commission, International Standard Industrial Classification of all Economic Activities" (Lake Success, New York 1948).

industrial classification, since an internationally accepted job classification is absolutely lacking and little has yet been achieved even on a national scale. Other than the United States, where there has been pioneer work in this field [1], no country, so far as I am aware, has produced a job classification. It is true that an occupational inventory was made in France in June 1947 [2], but this was compiled chiefly with reference to training and therefore cannot be regarded as a job classification in the present sense.

Job Inventory

In making a job inventory it is not sufficient merely to compile a catalogue of nothing but the names of jobs. A large number of jobs are called by many names, and sometimes the same name is used for widely different jobs. Hence the name alone is of little or no consequence and even tends to have a confusing effect in several cases. It therefore becomes necessary to attach to the name of each job a brief characteristic description or definition, and to state what other occupational terms are synonymous with it. It will then be possible in the inventory to identify all jobs and to distinguish between them. By way of illustration some of the definitions used in the Netherlands job inventory are given below :

Iron worker (shipbuilding) : Shaping ships' plates and section irons as required, by machine or by hand, where the shape is not fixed in advance but is determined by measurements taken on the hull itself.

Bricklayer : Making foundations, walls, cellars, arches, vaults, chimneys, etc., and setting decorative masonry, vertical courses and designs on the basis of specifications and plans ; making sewers of stone piping, and the masonry of sewer shafts ; laying wall tiles, and cement and tile floors ; setting chimney casings ; laying roof tiles ; pointing masonry ; making walls of prefabricated parts.

Granite worker : Placing a layer of granite concrete (mixture of crushed granite and cement) on concrete floors, steps, walls and

[1] For a brief account of this pioneer work, see International Labour Conference, 30th Session, Geneva 1947, Report V (1): *Employment Service Organisation*, Appendix V : "Note on the Occupational Research Programme of the United States Employment Service" (International Labour Office, Montreal, 1946).

[2] Institut National de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques : *Nomenclature analytique des métiers et des activités individuelles* (Paris, 1947).

pillars; dressing stone; making granite doorsteps and plinths; smoothing and polishing the granite layer by machinery or hand after the cement has hardened.

Welfare worker: Making contacts, by means of visits, with the families in the area in order to ascertain their social and/or intellectual and moral conditions; making reports to the appropriate authorities; giving advice to parents and/or members of families; making "follow-up" visits; arranging for removal of abuses or giving advice in this regard.

Job Analysis

Job analysis is the essential part of job classification and must therefore reach a high standard. The picture it gives should be so clear, exact and complete that it enables a person unfamiliar with the occupation to survey, understand and appraise the whole job. The analysis must, in particular, include descriptions of the materials, tools and operations involved.

The materials worked with, processed or handled are an important factor, since they largely determine the character of the job. The material may be simple, making little demand on the worker's skill; or it may have qualities which must be understood before it is possible to work upon it.

The kind and number of the tools used indicate the complexity of the job. A glance at the many different tools required by a carpenter will show how manysided and complex his trade is. A description of the machines served is also necessary, since the worker's task depends very largely on the kind of machine used. In highly mechanised production much of the work formerly done with the aid of hand tools has been taken over by the machine. In many cases the worker's task is reduced to feeding material to the machine and simply ensuring that it runs properly. The machine is such an important factor in the make-up of the job that a mere reference to its name will generally be insufficient. A careful description of each machine must be given and its type indicated in so far as these affect the job.

A description of the operations which must be performed on the given material with the tools and machines provided is the very centre of job analysis and therefore requires particular attention. The various operations making up the job

must be thoroughly studied, both individually and in relation one to another, and clearly described. In respect of each operation, the analyst must ask himself *what* the worker does, *how* he does it and *why*. A correct answer to these questions will reveal the content of the job.

In addition to covering these three points—materials, tools and operations—job analysis should provide information on various other matters, such as training and occupational requirements, relationship with other jobs, physical movements involved, conditions in which the work is done, etc. These lie outside the scope of the present article, however, and are not considered here.

It should also be pointed out that if job analysis is to yield the maximum results, it should be conducted on uniform lines and its use should be general. It will be necessary, as part of the classification, to compare jobs one with another, and such comparison will, of course, be greatly facilitated if the analysis is standardised.

The occupational data obtained—on a uniform basis—in this second stage of the classification process can be used for a variety of purposes. The following examples may be given of the fields in which job analysis provides useful material.

(a) Efficiency. Since the job analysis enables the character and content of the various jobs to be fully understood, its results may be used by managements as a basis for the appropriate organisation and utilisation of personnel ; they will also be of assistance in the grouping of operations within the undertaking, the improvement of methods of work and the avoidance of duplication.

(b) Safety and health. Job analysis gives an indication of possible causes of industrial accidents and occupational diseases ; such indications in their turn provide a basis for the organisation of safety and health measures.

(c) Employment of handicapped workers. Job analysis also provides data of value in determining the occupations in which physically handicapped workers can suitably be used despite their deficiencies. Once the physical actions involved in the performance of a given job have been ascertained, and the conditions in which it is carried on, the physical aspects of the

job may be systematically evaluated; and if handicapped workers are chosen with these considerations in mind, there is a high probability that their employment will be justified.

(d) Registration of workers. It is most important for the efficiency of an employment service that persons seeking work shall be properly registered, in other words, that their occupations and level of skill are correctly ascertained. Owing to a natural tendency on the part of the persons in question to exaggerate their own qualifications, the information they provide cannot be regarded as immediately and fully reliable; further questioning is therefore necessary, and for this purpose a questionnaire suited to the occupation in question will be of use. Appropriate questionnaires can be prepared from the results of the relevant job analyses.

(e) Classification of jobs by types. Even before the third stage—the definition of job requirements—has been reached, the results of job analysis can be used for a rough grouping or classification of jobs, which can be divided into "types" by technical content, each type comprising those in which the chief operations are identical.

By way of illustration a job analysis on the Netherlands model is given below. It relates to the three principal points —materials, tools and operations—specified above.

LABORATORY GLASS GRINDER.

Materials.

Material worked on: glass for laboratory use.
Materials used: carborundum paste; cooling water.

Tools and Machines.

Tools: None.
Machines: grinding machine (pedal control), consisting of an electrically driven horizontal spindle onto the end of which abrasive wheels can be mounted; these are externally or internally conical in shape and of various dimensions. Used for the conical (internal or external) grinding of laboratory glass.

Description of Work.

Mechanical grinding of laboratory glass at points where an airtight fit between the different parts is required (four operations):

(1) Starting machine: mount the conical abrasive wheel at the end of the horizontal spindle, choosing one that is externally

or internally conical according as the glass to be worked requires internal or external grinding.

(2) Internal grinding: connect machine; put a little carborundum paste by hand on the rotating abrasive wheel, push the glass to be worked against the wheel, press slightly and shape to measure as in model.

(3) External grinding: connect machine; spread a little carborundum paste by hand on the glass, hold the glass inside the rotating cone, press slightly and shape to measure as in model.

(4) Hand finishing (sometimes required): a stopper or plug and the glass into which it is to fit having both been preliminarily ground by machine, smear the stopper with carborundum paste and twist it back and forth in the glass by hand.

Analysis of Job Requirements

The results of the job analysis are used for making a qualitative and quantitative examination of the requirements which a worker must fulfil in order to carry out the job in question successfully. The qualitative analysis centres round the question "what demands does the job make upon the worker?". The quantitative analysis relates to the extent to which these demands are made.

Job requirements fall into three types: psychological (or mental); physical (or bodily); and training. Each of these types must be further elaborated, as regards both quality and quantity, for the different occupations.

In the light of the psychological and physical requirements of the job it can be decided whether a worker has the necessary aptitude for it; and if he has, the training requirements show what further training he may need for its performance. The psychological and physical requirements thus correspond to the worker's natural gifts and aptitudes, to which education or training must be added in the case of skilled occupations.

The additional information provided by an analysis of job requirements may be said to complete the necessary knowledge of the job. This knowledge can be put to many uses, of which the following are the most important.

(a) Selection of personnel. The object here is to choose from a number of candidates the person most suited to a particular job and thus to put the right man in the right place. Both employment service officials and personnel

managers are constantly faced with this type of problem. To be able to choose the right man for a particular vacancy, not only the candidates' qualifications but also the requirements of the job must be fully known. Without knowledge on the latter point it will be most difficult to test workers for the job. The analysis of job requirements provides an objective basis for personnel selection.

(b) Vocational selection. The problem here is to choose among several occupations that for which the person in question is best fitted. In this case too, the object is to put the right man in the right place. A vocational guidance officer is unable to do his work properly if he has no opportunity to ascertain the nature and particularly the requirements of the various occupations as the basis for the advice he gives. The analysis of job requirements is thus very important in the field of vocational guidance.

(c) Training. Effective programmes for the training of workers must be based on detailed knowledge and thorough understanding of the jobs for which the training is intended. Due regard must therefore be had in drawing up training programmes to the precise operations involved and therefore to the demands made by each job. Job analysis and analysis of job requirements are again indispensable.

To show in more detail how job requirements may be analysed, the schedule of psychological qualities used in the Netherlands to indicate requirements of this type is reproduced below. Points are given in respect of each item in the schedule, low marks being 1 and 2, medium marks 3 and 4, and high marks 5 and 6.

SCHEDULE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL REQUIREMENTS

I. INTELLIGENCE.

A. *Reasoning.*

(a) Theoretical problems (in the various sciences).

(b) Practical problems.

1. Technical.
2. Social.
3. Educational.
4. Commercial.
5. Administrative.
6. Organisational.

B. *Knowledge factors.*

(a) Perception.
1. Colour.
2. Sound.
3. Smell and taste.
4. Temperature.
5. Touch.
6. Shape.
7. Balance.
8. Distance.
9. Number.

(b) Memory.
1. Short periods.
2. Long periods.

(c) Attention.
1. Continuity.
2. Intensity.
3. Scope.

II. SENSIBILITY AND CHARACTER.

A. *Sensibility.*
1. Receptivity.
2. Equanimity.
3. Spontaneity.
4. Self-control.

B. *Character.*

(a)
1. Independence.
2. Self-reliance.
3. Responsibility.
4. Reliability.

(b)
1. Accuracy.
2. Prudence.
3. Conscientiousness.
4. Orderliness.

(c)
1. Willpower.
2. Activity.
3. Initiative.

(d)
1. Honesty.
2. Frankness.
3. Discretion.

III. DEXTERITY.

A. *Dexterity.*

(a) Simple manipulations.

(b) Holding a tool or material in the position indicated by a sketch.

(c) Holding a tool or material in a prescribed position.

(d) Guiding a tool, or guiding material into a machine, in the direction indicated by a sketch.

(e) Guiding a tool, or guiding material into a machine, free-hand in the direction indicated by means of a line on a sketch.

(f) Guiding a tool, or guiding material into a machine, free-hand in a prescribed direction.

(g) Guiding a tool or material free-hand in various directions corresponding to the character of the object.

B. *Factors affecting dexterity.*

(a) Tolerance of deviations.

(b) Co-ordination of the hands:

1. to exert great strength;
2. for more accurate guidance;
3. where the hands perform different operations which must be co-ordinated.

(c) Number and character of disturbing factors.

IV. KNOWLEDGE.

(a) Acquired by study.

(b) Acquired by experience.

(c) Acquired by practice.

V. SPEED.

FORMS OF JOB CLASSIFICATION

The most important forms of job classification that can be made at this stage are those for purposes of job evaluation and job affinity.

Job Evaluation

This is the grading of jobs by their work content and requirements, as the basis for a wage group system. The different jobs are compared by means of various criteria —knowledge, dexterity, care, responsibility, physical effort, risk of accidents, etc.; points are awarded, and a grading scheme established on the basis of the total points. The number of grades usually depends on the number of wage groups which it is desired to introduce in the industry or undertaking in question. The essential standard in job evaluation is thus the total value of the performance, rather than its character.

Job Affinity

This is a form of classification in which jobs are arranged in "families". The process falls into two stages. First of

all, as already described, jobs are divided, according to their technical content, into technical groups or "types"; next, on the basis of the psychological demands they make on the worker, there is a further division into psychological groups or "families", each of which includes jobs with qualitatively and quantitatively similar psychological requirements. This second classification is applied, not to individual jobs, but to the types established at the preceding stage; each of these, since it consists of jobs involving similar operations and requirements, may be included as a whole in the appropriate psychological family.

The possibility of placing several types of jobs in the same family is explained by the existence of types which, although outwardly different, yet require the same psychological aptitude on the worker's part, and therefore make the same psychological demands upon him.

The importance of this grouping by job affinity lies in the fact that jobs belonging to the same technical type or psychological family are mutually interchangeable, *i.e.*, a worker knowing one such job can undertake the others. Establishment of job affinities thus clearly tends to promote mobility of labour.

This interchange is, however, not always immediately practicable. The job families comprise jobs which are identical only in respect of their psychological requirements; the physical and training requirements—integral parts of the total demand made by a job—are here left out of account. But this does not affect the value of affinity grouping, since in the case of a mentally and physically sound person, the physical requirements of a job are far less important than the psychological. There are very wide psychological differences in aptitude between one able-bodied person and another; and it is therefore necessary, for a job making certain psychological demands, to have workers whose psychological aptitudes correspond with these demands.

The situation with regard to physique is quite different. In practice, the physical requirements of a job constitute a difficulty for all workers, even for the able-bodied—a difficulty which they must overcome. Very hard work, or work in an unhealthy atmosphere, is bad for anyone, normal men included. For physiological reasons a person with a weak heart or defec-

tive lungs, as the case may be, should be advised against such a job ; and to this extent it is important to have regard to physical requirements in the job analysis, so that this may provide a ground for negative advice to handicapped workers. For the able-bodied worker, however, physical requirements do not affect the interchangeability of jobs belonging to the same psychological family.

As training requirements are similarly not taken into account in determining the job families, jobs which require some degree of training are interchangeable only on condition that the worker has had the necessary practice, training, retraining or additional training. These requirements are, however, deliberately neglected for the present purpose, because aptitude is considered to be the essential element for the satisfactory performance of a job ; if there is aptitude for the job, there will also be aptitude for the necessary training, and the training itself then becomes merely a question of time.

Training requirements thus do not affect the interchangeability of jobs, but merely mean that in some cases the change cannot be immediate. Consequently, it would not be proper to take these requirements into account when arranging jobs in families, since this would make interchangeability and mobility of labour appear more restricted than is actually the case.

In the analysis of job requirements, on the other hand, training requirements are taken into account so as to determine whether and how far training will be required in case of a change of job.

The above remarks regarding physical and training requirements make it clear that their neglect in the classification of jobs in families does not affect interchangeability as much as may be thought at first sight. Job families thus constitute an excellent means of promoting the mobility of labour, and more particularly its horizontal mobility, namely, between jobs having quantitatively and qualitatively similar requirements.

The job families in their turn may be arranged in ascending order of difficulty. This should be determined largely, but not exclusively, by the extent to which the respective qualifications are required. Such graduation of jobs is useful as

providing a guide for the promotion of workers and thus increasing the vertical mobility of labour.

Uses of a Job Affinity Classification

There are several directions in which a job affinity classification can lead to improvements, for example, in the personnel policy of undertakings, in placing services, in combating structural and technological unemployment, in vocational guidance and in the co-ordination of civilian employment and military service.

Personnel Policy.

The establishment of job families enables undertakings to institute an efficient system of internal horizontal exchange of personnel in order to meet changing conditions of production. Furthermore, the graduation of job families according to difficulty provides a guide for the promotion of workers within the undertaking. Sometimes possibilities of internal promotion are unduly restricted because the relation between the number of simple, lower paid jobs and those commanding better pay is such that the intake into the latter group does not balance the promotion potential from below. In such cases the public employment service should be called in so that the candidates for promotion may be directed to other undertakings, where an inverse situation exists.

Placing.

For some time employment services have tried to use inter-local placing as a means of balancing a shortage of a certain type of labour in one place against a surplus of the same type in another, with an inverse adjustment in a second occupation. But these efforts have been defeated again and again by the fact that the workers are strongly attached to the locality in which they reside.

A system of job families provides a new means of balancing local surpluses and shortages of different sorts of labour, namely, through changes of occupation, which can be effected practically without difficulty in the case of unskilled or slightly skilled workers. As a matter of fact, such changes already occur to some extent quite apart from any definition of job

affinities, but the establishment of job families can greatly stimulate and increase this mobility by making it more efficient and reliable.

Structural and Technological Unemployment.

Evidently the practical importance of labour mobility —local and occupational—is greater the less skilled the workers in question are. But in the event of structural and technological unemployment, which deprives some skilled workers of any likelihood of finding employment in their own trades, the possibility of a change of occupation indicated by the job affinity system may be of very great value. Skilled workers thrown out of their own occupation by such unemployment often drift in practice into some unskilled trade, thus causing a loss to society and suffering a decline in their personal standards. Their careers have shown that they possess the basic aptitude for a skilled trade. The family to which such a worker's original job belonged and which corresponds to his aptitudes shows the jobs for which retraining combined with his natural ability can qualify him. He will be able to choose among these jobs that which offers the best prospects and requires training most similar to the training which led up to his old trade. In fact, the job family points out the line of least resistance for the necessary change. It thus provides a powerful weapon against the most intractable sort of unemployment, structural and technological unemployment.

Vocational Guidance.

Vocational guidance can achieve far more if the job affinity system is used. Instead of choosing among a few different jobs, the candidate can now choose between job families and thus has a wider scope. In this way the person responsible for giving vocational guidance can make due allowance for a number of subordinate considerations in addition to the candidate's aptitude, such as his personal preferences, possibilities of training, economic prospects in the trade, etc.

Co-ordination between Civilian Employment and Military Service.

One more instance of the value of grouping jobs by affinity lies in its importance to men on military service. The call-up usually comes at a time of life when the worker's

occupational development has only just begun, and the period of service may disturb or completely arrest such development. This disadvantage can be avoided if the work given to each recruit is as closely related as possible to the content of his civilian job or to his aptitudes. Hence duties in the defence forces should be analysed and as far as possible classified according to the existing job family classification. In this way an attempt may be made to disturb occupational development as little as possible both when the worker enters and when he leaves the service.

Simplified Procedure

Evidently the making of a classification of the kind described in the preceding pages will be a very extensive task and may take many years. Analysing the different jobs, in particular, takes a long time. For this reason and in view of the great importance attached to job affinity grouping, an attempt has been made in the Netherlands to work out a simplified procedure.

This consists in the preparation, first, of a job inventory; next, on the basis of the knowledge of the different occupations so obtained, types of jobs are defined and the jobs themselves classified according to type. The requirements of the different types of jobs are then analysed and, finally, the job families are established.

This work has already reached an advanced stage in the Netherlands. The types of jobs are settled; the analysis of job requirements for these types was nearly finished at the time of writing, and the resulting job classification, of a general character, was expected to be completed by the end of 1948. Of course, subsequent job analyses will be conducted with special care so as to correct any imperfections arising at the present stage.

To give an idea of the arrangement of jobs by type already effected, the main classification is reproduced below:

01. Very simple work,' requiring no reflection, initiative or accuracy, which can be done after an introductory period of a few days.
- .01. With very little physical effort.
- .02. With medium physical effort.
- .03. With great physical effort.

02. Very simple work, requiring no reflection or initiative, but requiring accuracy or attention, which can be done after an introductory period of a few days.
- .01. With very little physical effort.
- .02. With medium physical effort.
- .03. With great physical effort.

03. Simple work, requiring some reflection or initiative, which can be done after an introductory period of a few weeks.
- .01. With very little physical effort.
- .02. With medium physical effort.
- .03. With great physical effort.

04. Fairly complicated work, requiring reflection or initiative and practical experience of some months, but no theoretical knowledge.
- .01. With very little physical effort.
- .02. With medium physical effort.
- .03. With great physical effort.

05. Complicated work, requiring reflection, initiative and considerable practical experience, and perhaps some theoretical knowledge.
- .01. With very little physical effort.
- .02. With medium physical effort.
- .03. With great physical effort.

06. Complicated work, requiring definite natural ability, practical experience and theoretical knowledge.
- .01. With very little physical effort.
- .02. With medium physical effort.
- .03. With great physical effort.

07. Very complicated work, requiring definite natural ability, practical experience and medium theoretical education.

08. Practical work on a scientific basis, or purely scientific work.

As will be seen, jobs are first arranged in eight classes (code numbers 01., 02., . . . 08.) according to their degree of complexity. Classes 1 to 6 are subdivided into three grades (code numbers .01., .02., .03.) according to the physical effort required. Grade 1 includes definitely light work—mostly performed seated, but by no means exclusively so ; there are seated jobs not of a definitely light character, while others not done seated may be classed as very light work. Grade 3 includes the definitely strenuous jobs. Grade 2 forms an intermediate group, comprising jobs not evidently belonging to either of the other two. The classification into grades is based on the job as it generally arises ; no account is taken of the fact

that actual conditions in a given undertaking may involve a modification. There is no division into grades in classes 7 and 8, because physical effort has little importance here and the difficulty of the work depends largely on the form which the job takes in individual cases.

Within the above classes and grades, jobs are grouped by " types " according to their content. The significance of this classification is that jobs belonging to a given type are mutually interchangeable. This interchangeability is immediately effective in the lower classes ; the higher the class, the more does interchangeability depend on training.

The job types in each grade are given code numbers from .01 to .99. As far as possible they are arranged in ascending order of difficulty.

Each of the classes and grades, as already stated, contains the appropriate types of jobs. For example, those in class 2, grade 3, are as follows :

02.03.01 Drag-peat digging and cutting.
02.03.02 Simple, but heavy, dockers' work requiring some care.
02.03.03 Keeping an automatic machine regularly supplied with heavy material and attending to its running.
02.03.04 Simple but accurate copying on heavy objects which may have to be moved or turned.
02.03.99 Heavy but simple work requiring accuracy or attention.

Each of the job types, of which there are 472 in all, comprises several jobs. For example, type 02.03.03 (keeping an automatic machine regularly supplied with heavy material and attending to its running) includes the following jobs : butter shaper, casein presser, wood chopper, wood grinder, margarine scooper, stoker.

International Application

For the purpose of international application of a job classification scheme, each of the countries concerned should begin by compiling a job inventory on the lines described above. The compilers of the national job inventories should then attempt, on the basis of the information obtained on the work content of the various jobs, to agree on international definitions of types of job and of the jobs to be included in

each type. When the international types have been determined, it will be possible to make an analysis of job requirements for each type, followed in turn by the establishment of international job families. Judging by the experience gained in the Netherlands, it may be expected that the rough scheme will be ready in a few years, provided that preparation of the inventories in the different countries is continued in a regular manner.

Of course, once an approximate classification has been completed by means of this simplified procedure, an attempt to supplement it by job analyses should follow.

The advantages of an international job classification lie mainly in the improvements it may bring with respect to migration movements and the international exchange of manpower. But while the preparation of the classification will take some years, the need for international manpower exchanges already exists. To meet this situation the countries which need a certain sort of manpower should publish a description by work content of the jobs they cannot fill, and the countries with a manpower surplus should do the same in respect of the occupations to which the available workers belong. In order that these descriptions may be of practical use, it will be necessary to issue some guiding principles for their compilation. There can be no doubt that the International Labour Office, which is already taking action in regard to manpower problems, is the appropriate agency for conducting, co-ordinating and completing this task.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Holidays with Pay in the Construction Industries

The question of holidays with pay for workers in general was considered by the International Labour Conference at its 20th Session (Geneva, 1936), which adopted a Convention and a Recommendation on the subject. In the latter the Conference dealt, among other things, with the problem of providing holidays in employment in which work is not carried out regularly throughout the year, a point which has since been taken up by the Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee of the International Labour Organisation. At its first session, held in Brussels at the end of 1946, the Committee adopted a resolution on this question in which it requested the Office to enquire into existing practices in respect of construction workers. The results of the study made by the Office in pursuance of the resolution are embodied in the General Report prepared for the forthcoming second session of the Committee.[1] *It is believed that this information may be of interest to the readers of the* Review, *and the relevant passages of the report are accordingly reproduced below.*

Before the war of 1914-1918, annual holidays with pay were in the main the prerogative of officials of the State and local authorities, salaried employees and intellectual and professional workers. The movement to give manual workers as well as brain workers a period of leisure for rest and recuperation during which they would continue to receive their pay became widespread only in the years following the close of that war. At the same time, the principle of annual holidays with pay for manual workers as a right, and not merely as an act of benevolence on the part of the employer, began to gain general acceptance. During the last World War, the acute shortage of labour, coupled with the urgent need in many countries for highest productive efficiency and

[1] International Labour Organisation, Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee, Second Session, Rome, 1949: *General Report* (International Labour Office, Geneva, 1949).

consequently for alert and healthy workers, gave added strength to a movement which had by then become firmly rooted. The rapid development in the practice of according holidays with pay to all categories of workers, incidentally removing both an injustice and an undesirable distinction between salaried employees and manual workers, may be considered as one of the outstanding features of recent social progress.

Thus, the right of every worker to an annual holiday with pay is now generally admitted, but the manner of applying this principle varies. In a number of countries the main method is legislation; in others collective agreements are of greatest importance. Sometimes both methods exist side by side. In Australia and New Zealand, holidays with pay are the subject of arbitration awards in addition to legislation and collective agreements. Individual contracts of employment and custom are also not unimportant factors.

As regards legislation, the mere inclusion of broad categories of workers in holiday provisions does not necessarily mean that all the workers in those categories will automatically enjoy a holiday with pay. Compliance with certain conditions is required, and one of the stipulations most generally imposed is continuous service with the same employer for a specified period, often one year. A requirement of this kind protects the interests of the employer and is a factor contributing to stability of employment. In a large number of industries it would appear to be a not unfair condition, provided that the workers are safeguarded against arbitrary dismissal before the expiration of the qualifying period. Obviously, however, if a procedure of this kind were applied to industries where employment is seasonal or the subject of interruption for some other reason, or where the workers are obliged to change their employers during the course of the year through no fault of their own, the workers concerned may only rarely qualify for holidays with pay through inability to fulfil the conditions prescribed. Workers in the construction industries are a case in point, and it frequently happens that, merely on account of the nature of their employment, they are deprived of the holidays with pay which it is now common practice to grant to workers in other more stable occupations. It may be argued that building trade workers are obliged to interrupt their work from time to time and that consequently they feel the need for a period of relaxation less than other workers who are employed day after day for long periods. Irregular intervals without work would, however, hardly seem equivalent to a definite period of holiday each year which the worker may claim as a right and for which he can plan ahead, secure in the knowledge that he will receive holiday pay.

It may be of interest to mention here two of the suggestions bearing on employment that is not continuous with the same employer which the International Labour Conference at its 1936 Session recommended should be taken into consideration:

In employment in which work is not carried on regularly throughout the year the condition of continuity of employment should be regarded as satisfied by the working of a prescribed number of days during a prescribed period ;

and

The holiday should be earned after one year's work, regardless whether this period has been spent in the employment of the same or several employers. Each Government should take effective steps to ensure that the cost arising from the granting of the holidays shall not fall entirely upon the last employer.

Various methods have been adopted to overcome the practical difficulties attaching to the grant of holidays with pay in industries where employment is irregular. In some countries an effort has been made to frame the general legislation on holidays with pay in such a way as to maintain the workers' rights irrespective of fluctuations in their employment ; others have preferred to make special regulations for the industries where the granting of holidays meets with difficulties ; in some cases, the question is dealt with in collective agreements or arbitration awards. An attempt is made in the following pages to outline the methods adopted by different countries to provide holidays for workers in the construction industries, and the ways in which, in a number of countries, the difficulties raised by the fluctuations in employment characteristic of those industries have been overcome.

General Legislation

In a considerable number of countries legislation on holidays with pay is general in scope and is applicable to industry as a whole ; it therefore includes employees in the building, civil engineering and public works contracting industries. In some of these countries, as indicated above, machinery has not yet been devised to ensure that under this general legislation construction workers will not be debarred from taking the holidays for which provision is made owing to the nature of the qualifying conditions imposed. In others, the legislation would appear to be sufficiently elastic to enable construction workers to benefit from holidays with pay in the same way as employees in other branches of industry. In these countries the right to a holiday with pay starts after a relatively short period of service, or there is some arrangement whereby holiday credits accumulate from week to week and can be carried forward when the worker changes his employment.

A short analysis follows of the general laws in a number of countries relating to annual holidays with pay from which construction workers would appear to be able to benefit.

In *Belgium* the Legislative Order of 3 January 1946 regulating annual holidays covers, generally speaking, all persons bound by contracts for the hiring of services or by contracts of apprenticeship, including construction workers. The Order lays down the essential principles for the grant of holidays with pay, leaving scope for their adaptation to the special needs of the various branches of industrial activity. Rules for the enforcement of the Order in the different industries are contained in legislative provisions.

The length of the annual holiday laid down in the Order of 3 January 1946 is proportionate to the work performed, whether continuous or not, during the holiday year, and may not be less than six days in respect of every twelve months' employment. This period is tripled or doubled respectively in the case of employees under the ages of eighteen and twenty-one years, under a Legislative Order of 16 June 1947. An Order of 16 February 1946, for the administration of the Order of 3 January 1946, provides for holidays on the following scale : six days' holiday after more than 275 days' work ; five days' holiday after 226-275 days' work ; four days' holiday after 176-225 days' work ; three days' holiday after 126-175 days' work ; two days' holiday after 76-125 days' work ; one day's holiday after 26-75 days' work ; and a half day's holiday after 15-25 days' work. Absences of a specified maximum duration on account of sickness or military service, or absences due to accident, are counted as days worked. The actual number of days' holiday may be increased for workers in a particular branch of industry, in agreement with the competent joint committee, provided that proportionate supplementary contributions are paid by the employers concerned. No decision to increase the length of the holiday has yet been taken by the National Joint Committee of the Building Industry.

Under the Order of 16 February 1946, payment for the holiday is equal to the number of days' leave to which the worker is entitled, multiplied by his average daily wages during the last fortnight of March of the year in which the holiday is taken, or, if the worker was not occupied at that time, during the last fifteen days on which he worked prior to 31 March. Legislation of 14 June 1948, however, doubles this remuneration, subject to a deduction of 6 per cent. Holiday pay for employees covered by the Legislative Order of 28 December 1944 is provided by an employers' contribution which is included in the global contribution in respect of social security [1] and is transmitted by the National Social Security Office to the National Annual Holiday Fund, which in turn apportions the sums received among the various special holiday funds, including the fund for the building and civil engineering industries. This fund was established by an Order of 6 July 1939 and made responsible for the payment of holiday remuneration to construction workers. The general holiday legislation provides that holidays must be taken between 31 May and 31 October, unless the worker requests other-

[1] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1944—Bel. 2.

wise. The exact date is fixed by mutual agreement between the worker and the employer, or, if the employer wishes all the workers in his undertaking to take their holiday at the same time, by agreement between the employer and the organisation representative of the majority of the workers.

In *Canada* the Federal Parliament has jurisdiction in labour matters only in connection with international or interprovincial transport and communications, and authority to legislate on working conditions rests with the provincial Governments; accordingly, the Dominion Government regulates the holidays with pay only of those construction employees who are working on its own account. All construction projects, such as public works, undertaken by the Dominion Government are normally let by contract. Under the Fair Wages and Hours of Work Act of 1935, any contractor engaged on construction or demolition for a department of the Dominion Government is required to maintain the working conditions prevailing in the locality in which the work is being carried on. Whether or not employees engaged by a private contractor working for the Federal Government are entitled to holidays with pay therefore depends upon the practice prevailing in the district where the work is being done.

Holidays are granted to workers in general, including construction workers, by the laws of a number of the Canadian provinces, for instance, by Alberta, British Columbia [1], Manitoba, Ontario and Saskatchewan. The situation in Quebec is described later in these pages.[2] In Alberta, the holidays of construction workers are regulated by a special Order [3], and in Ontario by Regulations applying the general holiday legislation.[3] In Manitoba, the conditions attached to the grant of a holiday are such that many workers moving from one employer to another in a highly seasonal industry like the construction industry are unlikely to derive much benefit from them. In Saskatchewan, two weeks' holiday is allowed after one year's continuous service; provision is made for proportionate holiday pay if service terminates during the year; also, the employer may, by agreement with the worker, grant a holiday of one day for each month of service if the worker has been in his employ less than a year.

In *Denmark* the Holidays with Pay Act of 13 April 1938 provides for holidays at the rate of one day for each month of service during which the worker has been employed in the undertaking. If employment is of shorter duration than one month, the length of the holiday thus earned is proportionate to length of service, and it is only if employment is for less than one week that it is disregarded. The total length of the holiday to which each worker is entitled is calculated on the basis of periods of employment during the preceding holiday year, that is, from 1 April to 31 March. The holiday must,

[1] See below, p. 181.
[2] See below, p. 184.
[3] See below, p. 182.

in principle, be taken in one continuous period between 2 May and 30 September, the exact dates being fixed by the employer. Absence from work on account of sickness, accident, annual holidays and military service does not break continuity of employment. Holiday allowances are equal to 4 per cent. of the remuneration paid for the work on which the right to leave is based.

In the Danish building trades, holiday payment is guaranteed by the technical organisation concerned, usually on the basis of standard agreements between the Danish Employers' Confederation and the Confederation of Danish Trade Unions, which conform to one of the two following systems :

(1) A worker employed by several employers in the course of a year receives, on the termination of each period of employment, a standard card indicating the wages which have been paid to him. Before going on leave he sends his card to the organisation for payment of the holiday allowances due to him. The member of the employers' organisation by whom he is employed, or the branch of the trade union concerned if he is unemployed or working for an unorganised employer, certifies by endorsement on the card that the worker is going to take his holiday.

(2) On each pay-day, each employer affixes to the worker's holiday-stamp book holiday stamps—previously obtained from the employers' organisation—equal in value to holiday remuneration for the period worked. At the beginning of the holiday, the employer inserts the date of the holiday in the stamp book, and the employers' organisation concerned, or, under special arrangement, the workers' organisation, pays the worker the equivalent in cash of the stamps in the holiday book.

The Holidays with Pay Act stipulates that the right to an allowance is forfeited if paid employment is taken during the holiday period. If the worker is dismissed or leaves his employment before taking his holiday, he is entitled to the holiday due to him during his period of service with the new employer. Annual leave must be granted in a continuous period between 2 May and 30 September ; within this period the date of the leave is fixed by the employer. If, however, the grant of annual leave within this period would cause manifest inconvenience to an undertaking, owing, for example, to the seasonal nature of the work, the Director of the Labour and Factory Inspection Department, after consultation with the organisations of employers and workers for the occupation in question, may authorise the granting of annual leave by instalments and outside the period in question. The Act is without prejudice to any more favourable holiday provisions in other Acts, regulations, agreements or contracts, or to holidays given in accordance with custom. More favourable conditions do not, however, as a rule exist in the building trades.

In *Finland*, under the Annual Holidays Act of 27 April 1946 as amended, the length of the annual holiday is determined in accordance with the number of months worked for the employer in the course of the twelve months immediately preceding 30 April

of each year. Months during which work was performed for less than sixteen days are not taken into account in this calculation. A holiday of two working days a month is given for continuous service of not less than ten years, or a minimum of one month's holiday for the year if work is continued without interruption throughout the twelve months serving as a basis for the calculation of the holiday. A holiday of one and a half working days a month is allowed for continuous service in commerce and offices of not less than five years, and also for young persons under eighteen years of age. Service of less than five years entitles a worker to a holiday of one day per month.

In principle the holiday is granted in a single period between 2 May and 30 September, but provision is made for dividing the holiday in certain cases. The worker receives full wages for every working day of the holiday. If he is paid by periods of more than one day, the daily remuneration is reckoned by dividing the amount of the wage by the number of working days in the period concerned. Employees who work on certain days only or on a part-time basis are paid according to average daily remuneration. If an employee fails to work a sufficient number of days in the course of a month to entitle him to a holiday, he receives compensatory payment, in lieu of holiday, equal to 4 per cent. of wages received, provided that his employment lasted for not less than six months without interruption. The holiday is granted on dates fixed by the employer between 2 May and 30 September for employees in general, and at any time during the calendar year for workers in agriculture or allied industries, or employed in other similar work of a seasonal nature in which the granting of holidays during the summer would cause difficulties in the conduct of the undertaking.

In *New Zealand*, under the Annual Holidays Act of 1944 as amended, every worker of any age and of either sex employed for hire or reward is entitled, at the end of each year of employment, to two weeks' annual holiday on ordinary pay, *i.e.*, the remuneration for the worker's normal number of hours calculated at the ordinary time rate of pay and including the cash value of any board or lodging provided by the employer as part of the remuneration. This holiday must be given by the employer within a period of six months after it becomes due. If the worker is employed for less than twelve but more than three months, the employer is required to pay him on termination of service an amount equivalent to 1/25 of his ordinary pay for the period of employment; if employment is for less than three months but more than three weeks, the employer must affix to the worker's holiday card ordinary postage or revenue stamps of an amount equivalent to 1/25 of the worker's ordinary pay for the period of employment; if employment is for less than three weeks, the employer must affix stamps equivalent to 1/25 of the worker's ordinary pay for the time thus worked. Particulars of the employment to which the stamps relate must be entered by the employer on the card, which may be surrendered at any money order office

in New Zealand after the expiration of one year from the first date of employment shown on it. If the worker is entitled under any other Act or under any agreement or contract of service to annual holidays more favourable than those to which he is entitled under the provisions of this Act, then the Act will not apply to him.

In *Norway* an Act came into force on 16 November 1947 introducing eighteen working days' annual holiday for all wage earners during each holiday year, *i.e.*, from 16 May to 15 May. This provision does not apply to a worker who joins an undertaking more than fourteen days after the beginning of the holiday year. Employment of less than six days' duration does not qualify for a holiday, but the Ministry of Social Affairs may make special regulations prescribing that holiday remuneration shall be paid for shorter service and for work done on behalf of various employers for periods of less than six days. As regards holiday payment, a worker whose remuneration consists of a fixed yearly, monthly, weekly or daily wage will be entitled during his annual holiday to full wages for the normal hours of work if he has received pay from the undertaking during the whole of the qualifying year; otherwise the wages he receives during his holiday will be in proportion to the time he worked. A worker whose wages are not fixed is entitled, after a minimum of six days' employment, to holiday remuneration equal to 6.5 per cent. of his earnings. No deductions will be made for absence on account of duly proved incapacity for work (a maximum of three months), accident or sickness, pregnancy (a maximum of twelve weeks before and after confinement), and compulsory military service (a maximum of three months).

The Act provides for a system of holiday stamps and holiday books issued by a National Holiday Fund. The employer must buy and affix to the worker's holiday book, at regular intervals of not less than once a month, holiday stamps equal in value to the holiday pay for the period in question. The book will be handed to the worker when he leaves the undertaking or is about to take his holiday. On production of his book at a post office on or after 16 May of each holiday year, with an attestation from his employer that he is entitled to a holiday, the worker will receive his holiday pay. The employer decides the dates of the annual holidays, provided that two consecutive weeks are granted between 16 May and 30 September, and the remainder in one instalment before the end of the holiday year; in occupations the nature of which requires that work shall be continued as far as possible throughout the summer, the employer may fix one half of the annual holiday outside the summer period. Rules differing from these provisions concerning the holiday season may be made by collective or other written agreement provided that the annual holiday is granted before the end of the holiday year.

In *Sweden* workers are entitled, by the Act of 29 June 1945 as amended, to one day's holiday for each calendar month of the qualifying year during which they worked for the same employer for at least sixteen days. The minimum holiday for a full year's

work is thus twelve days. Holiday pay is calculated on the basis of the worker's average earnings, the daily rate being equal to one sixth of the weekly wage or 1/25 of the monthly wage. Young persons under eighteen years of age are granted a longer holiday ($1^1/_2$ days a month) than that provided for adult workers. Supplementary remuneration for periods in excess of normal hours is not taken into account. The dates of the holiday are fixed by the employer, and care must be taken to ensure that it is given in a continuous period and as far as possible in the summer, unless the worker requests otherwise.

In countries where continuity of service for periods as long as one year is a condition for the grant of holidays with pay under the general holiday legislation, it is sometimes the practice for workers who are unable to complete the prescribed period to be given on termination of employment a *pro rata* monetary payment for the time they have worked. For instance, the Holidays with Pay Acts of the *Australian* States of New South Wales and Victoria provide for two weeks' holiday after twelve months' continuous service, but if employment is for less than twelve months the worker receives an amount equal to 1/25 of his ordinary pay for the period he has worked, in addition to all other sums due to him. A similar payment is accorded under the Queensland Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act, 1932-1946, in the case of workers who have been employed for less than twelve months but more than four weeks.

In the *Canadian* province of British Columbia, the qualifying period for six days' holiday is 250 days of actual work during the calendar year. If the term of service with an employer ends during a working year in respect of which the employee has not received an annual holiday, he must be paid one eighth of a day's pay for each week of actual work performed for that employer during the uncompleted year, in addition to other payroll credits.

The *Irish* Act of 11 February 1939 concerning holidays requires continuous employment with the same employer for not less than 1,800 hours during the employment year as a condition for the grant of seven days' consecutive holiday with pay. A clause providing for workers whose employment is irregular lays down that a worker who leaves the undertaking before the end of the year must be given one full day's pay for the first month in which he worked for not less than 150 hours and for each subsequent two months during which he worked for not less than 300 hours.

Special Statutory Rules and Regulations

Owing to the nature of employment in the construction industries, a few countries make holidays with pay for workers in these industries the subject of special statutory regulations, in order to

ensure that the workers concerned really do have an opportunity of enjoying a period of rest with pay. These provisions usually come within the framework of the general holiday legislation and are supplementary to it.

In the *Canadian* province of Alberta, for instance, Order No. 5 of 14 June 1947, issued by the Board of Industrial Relations under the Alberta Labour Act, provides that workers in general shall be allowed one week's holiday with regular pay after one year's continuous employment, and two weeks after two years' employment. Order No. 6 of 18 June 1947 applies specifically to construction workers. It lays down that workers whose employment is not continuous with the same employer throughout the year are entitled to a holiday with pay credit of 2 per cent. of their earnings from each employer. The credit is recorded by means of stamps affixed by the employer to the worker's holiday book at the end of each pay period, whether it be a day, a week or any other period. The stamps are issued by the Board of Industrial Relations and purchased by the employer from any of the Alberta provincial treasury branches. The worker must present his holiday book to one of these branches within the ten months following 30 June of each year, and he will then receive the face value of the stamps in the book and will be considered to have begun his annual holiday. A worker who continues in the service of the same employer for two or more years is entitled to a credit of 4 per cent. of his earnings over the year.

In the province of Ontario, workers in industrial undertakings are entitled by the Hours of Work and Vacations with Pay Act of 1944 to at least one week's paid holiday for every year of employment. Regular full-time employees in the construction industries may, of course, take their week's vacation with pay in a manner similar to full-time employees of factory, office or retail establishments. The holiday pay of construction workers who interrupt or change their employment is covered by regulations applying the Act which stipulate that the employer must affix to the holiday stamp book of the worker, at the end of each regular pay period, vacations-with-pay credit stamps equal in value to 2 per cent. of the worker's gross earnings during that period. Upon presentation of the stamp book on or after 30 June in each year to a provincial savings office or branch of a chartered bank in Ontario, the worker, upon identification, will be entitled to receive the cash equivalent of the stamps in the book. Vacations-with-pay stamp books are issued by the Department of Labour. The responsibility for obtaining a book rests with the worker, but in actual practice the book is generally issued to the employer—on his application—on behalf of the workers in his undertaking. The stamp system automatically provides for broken periods of work, but interruptions of employment would extend the qualifying period for earning six days' holiday pay to a corresponding extent. The regulations also provide that the employer may make deductions on a *pro rata*

basis from the holiday credits of a worker who has been absent for more than one working day in any month during the year, unless the absence was authorised or due to illness.

Book II of the *French* Labour Code, which, *inter alia*, regulates holidays with pay, provides for the issue of decrees specifying the occupations and industries in which the statutory holiday provisions will be applied subject to special conditions—in particular, the industries in which workers are not normally employed continuously with the same employer during the period taken into account for determining the right to a holiday. Employers are required to join a holiday fund. A Decree was issued on 18 January 1937 (amended on 27 March 1946) regulating holidays with pay in building and public works undertakings and establishing special regional funds for the payment of holiday remuneration. These funds must be affiliated to a national equalisation fund, and each employer must be a member of the competent fund for his particular branch of industry in the locality in which his undertaking is situated. The resources of the regional funds are derived from a percentage, fixed by the fund, of total salaries and wages, which must be paid monthly by the employers concerned. Workers are entitled by the Decree to one day's holiday for 150 hours of actual work, up to a maximum of twelve working days. The number of days' holiday is increased by one working day for every five years' service, continuous or not, with the same employer, but the total length of the holiday may not exceed eighteen working days. Holiday pay is calculated on the basis of 1/25 of the hourly rate of wages obtained by dividing the total wages earned during the last pay period immediately preceding the holiday by the number of hours worked during that period ; the resulting rate is multiplied by the number of hours worked in respect of which the holiday is due. Each employer must give the worker when he leaves the undertaking, or is about to take his holiday, a certificate in duplicate, showing the number of hours he has worked in the undertaking during the preceding twelve months, the hourly rate of wages paid, and the address of the holiday fund to which the undertaking is affiliated. In order to obtain a continuous holiday, the worker must forward to the competent holiday fund all the certificates in his possession at least fifteen days before he wishes to start his holiday.

An Act of 19 August 1946 amending the general holiday legislation makes provision for two days' holiday a month up to a maximum of 24 working days for young persons between fourteen and eighteen years of age and for one and a half days a month up to a maximum of eighteen working days for persons between eighteen and twenty-one years of age.

In *India* there are no provisions granting holidays with pay to construction workers in private undertakings or to casual labour employed by public authorities. On the other hand, monthly rated permanent staff and certain categories of temporary staff

employed by the Public Works Departments of the Central and provincial Governments are eligible for holidays with pay in accordance with the rules and regulations of the Department concerned. Normally, one year's service is the qualifying period, and it is reckoned by days of uninterrupted attendance at work. The Central Public Works Department grants fifteen days' holiday with pay to monthly rated employees in the military engineering service whose employment is continuous throughout the year. Payment is on the basis of average earnings. In Madras, every worker in the Public Works Department workshops and stores who has completed twelve months' continuous service is granted ten days' leave during the succeeding year. Every worker in this Department who is not a casual labourer and who has given satisfactory service of not less than three years, is granted fifteen days' annual holiday. Continuity of service is not broken by sickness, accident or authorised leave not exceeding ninety days in all, by legal strike or lockout, or by intermittent periods of involuntary unemployment not exceeding thirty days. If a worker fails to take the whole of his authorised holiday, he may carry forward ten days of the period not taken to the succeeding year. Holiday pay is based on average daily wages for the days worked during the three months preceding the holiday, exclusive of overtime.

Collective Agreements

As previously mentioned, collective agreements providing holidays with pay for construction workers frequently exist side by side with legislation, sometimes supplementing the law and guaranteeing advantages greater than the minimum laid down by statute, and sometimes involving modifications which are less favourable to the workers than the legislative provisions.

In the *Canadian* province of Quebec, holidays with pay are regulated by both legislation and collective agreement. Order No. 3 of the Minimum Wage Commission, dated 14 September 1946 and amended on 8 February 1947, provides for annual holidays with pay for workers in general, but specifically excepts employees engaged in the construction of buildings. As regards collective agreements, the Collective Agreement Act of 1946, as amended, stipulates that holiday provisions incorporated in a collective agreement may, like wage and hour terms, be extended by Government Order to non-parties in the industry in the district covered by the agreement. In only one area, however, has a collective agreement providing for an annual holiday with pay been generalised in the construction industry. This agreement provides for six days' holiday with pay after one year's service with the same employer. The minimum length of holiday accorded by statutory provision to workers in general is seven days after one year's continuous service. In Ontario a number of collective agreements rela-

ting to the building trades provide for an additional week's holiday in excess of the six days required by statute, payment for these excess periods being a matter of arrangement between the management and the workers.

There is no legislation in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island providing for holidays with pay for construction workers, nor are there collective agreements for this purpose, though the matter is under negotiation for painters and electricians in St. John, New Brunswick.

In *Italy*, according to the collective agreement of 16 December 1946 between the National Association of Building Contractors and the Italian Federation of Workers in the Building and Allied Trades, construction workers are entitled to twelve days' holiday with pay after one year's consecutive service in an undertaking. In the case of a holiday shutdown, or of dismissal or resignation before the expiration of the twelve months' qualifying period, the worker is entitled to one day's holiday for each complete month of service. The date of the holiday is fixed by mutual agreement in accordance with the exigencies of the work, and may be taken by the whole undertaking together, by groups of workers, or individually. Each undertaking must deposit each payday, for the purpose of annual holidays, public holidays and Christmas bonuses, 19 per cent. of the worker's earnings for that pay period in a special account in the worker's name at a bank or similar institution, or must set it aside with the funds of the undertaking itself. Provincial rules establish which method of payment is to be adopted.

In *Switzerland* a Building and Public Works Holidays with Pay Fund has been set up by agreement between the Swiss Building Contractors' Society and organisations of workers. The Fund operates throughout the country. Under provisional regulations which came into force on 9 June 1947, workers in the building, public works, carpentry and stone industries must receive each payday from their respective employers holiday stamps equal to 4 per cent. of their gross wages for the week. Each worker must stick the stamps into his holiday book immediately he receives them. The right to encashment begins when the stamps in the book correspond to two or three days' holiday, which is equivalent to several months' service, but the holiday can only be taken once during a calendar year. The number of days' holiday to which the worker is entitled is calculated by dividing the total sum represented by the stamps in the holiday book by his last hourly wage multiplied by eight. The time at which the holiday is taken is determined by agreement between the employer and the worker. When a worker leaves his employment, the length of time he has been in the undertaking and his hourly wage must be recorded in the holiday book and countersigned by the employer. The holiday allowance is paid by the employer who last employs the worker before he takes his holiday. It is forbidden to undertake paid employment during the holiday period. The Fund is administered by the Equalisation

Fund (Military) of the Swiss Building Contractors' Society, but its financial management is independent of that of the Military Fund.

In the *United Kingdom* the relevant agreement is the Building and Civil Engineering Contracting Industries Agreement, dated 28 October 1942, which applies to all operatives covered by the wage agreements of the National Joint Council for the Building Industry and the Civil Engineering Construction Conciliation Board. Under this agreement, every worker over eighteen years of age is credited for each week's work, by the employer first employing him in that calendar week, with a sum of 2s. in the form of stamps, which the employer must affix on the worker's holiday credit card ; the value of the weekly stamp for workers under eighteen years of age is 1s. 6d. The stamps and cards are purchased by the employer from a company known as the Building and Civil Engineering Holidays Scheme Management Company, which is representative of the parties to the agreement and is responsible for the administration of the scheme and for settling questions of interpretation. The credits are paid into a central fund established for the whole of the combined industries. The worker is entitled to a holiday of six consecutive working days between 1 April and 31 October each year, the exact dates of the holiday being decided by the employer in consultation with the worker.

It is intended that the holiday shall, as far as possible, be granted to all the operatives on all the works or sites at the recognised summer holiday period for the locality. It is recognised that this is not always practicable, and in such cases satisfactory alternative arrangements should be made for the summer holiday at each works. A worker who is unable to take his holiday at the time decided by the employers, either on account of accident or sickness or because he is required to work at that time, must be granted his holiday as soon as reasonably convenient. In all cases the worker must have at least fourteen days' notice of the date of his holiday. A sum equal to the credits on the holiday card, less an administrative charge of 6d. per annum, is paid to the worker by the employer for whom he is working at the date of the holiday, the sum so paid being subsequently recovered by the employer from the Management Company. Since the making of a holiday credit to a worker in respect of any particular calendar week is dependent upon his being in employment for at least a part of that week, no worker who is absent from work for the whole of the week, whether with or without leave or on account of sickness or accident, is entitled to any holiday credit for that week. Cash payment instead of the holiday is not permitted, nor can the holiday be carried over from one year to the next. An agreement similar to that for annual holidays has also been concluded in respect of payment for six public holidays each year.

In the *United States* clauses providing for paid holidays have become a standard feature of union agreements in most of the major industries. Holidays with pay are, however, least prevalent

in seasonal industries and occupations in which workers are employed by a number of different employers during the course of the year. They are therefore rare in the building, civil engineering and public works industries, and collective agreements for workers in these trades do not contain provisions for holidays with pay.

Other Methods of Regulation

In the *Netherlands* a special system has been put into operation at the request of employers and workers in the building industry. A board of mediators appointed by the Government has declared that workers in building undertakings are entitled to twelve days' annual holiday. This period is made up of six consecutive days and six days distributed over the year, one of which is in celebration of the Queen's birthday and one in commemoration of the liberation of the country from the Germans. Payment is made from a holiday fund for building workers. Each payday, in addition to wages, the employer is required to give each worker a holiday voucher issued by the holiday fund. The value of a whole voucher is 3.40 florins and of a half voucher 1.65 florins. Vouchers are not given to employees who have worked less than two days with the same employer during the week for which wages are paid, or to those who have already received 45 vouchers during the holiday year, *i.e.*, 1 July to 30 June. They can be cashed by the worker during his holiday at any authorised place.

In *New Zealand* the Otago and Southland Plasterers' Award of 3 March 1947, the Otago Builders' Labourers', Quarry Workers', Tunnellers' and General Labourers' Award of 17 March 1947 and the Wellington, Marlborough, Nelson and Westland Roofers', Tilers' and Floor Layers' Award of 18 April 1947 all provide that annual holidays shall be allowed to employees in these industries in accordance with the Annual Holidays Act, 1944, which has already been described.[1]

In *Switzerland* a number of undertakings in industries such as cement and tile works, which are closely linked to building and public works, allow the workers holidays—based on length of service and average wages during the last three pay periods—on the following scale: from the fourth month and until the end of the fifth year of employment, six working days of eight hours; for the five following years, nine working days of eight hours; from the eleventh to the twenty-fourth year, twelve working days of eight hours; and from the twenty-fifth year and onwards, eighteen working days of eight hours.

In the canton of Valais, an inter-occupational holidays with pay fund was set up on 1 July 1945 in conformity with the Workers'

[1] See above, p. 179.

Protection Act of 18 January 1933 and with decisions taken by employers' and workers' organisations. All the factories in the canton must belong to the fund and also all the building and public works undertakings which are not members of the Valais Association of Building Contractors ; undertakings which are not subject to the special holiday provisions of collective agreements may also belong. Employers pay a contribution of 2 per cent. of total monthly wages into the fund. Holidays are paid on the basis of average annual wages for an eight-hour day on the following scale : one day's holiday after a minimum of 600 hours' work ; two days' holiday after 1,200 hours' work ; four days after 1,800 hours' work ; and six days after 2,400 hours' work. The worker must notify the fund ten days before he wishes to take his holiday. Paid employment is strictly forbidden during the holiday.

Conclusion

It will be seen from the preceding description of the holiday provisions in various countries that the length of the holiday for which construction workers may qualify is usually proportionate to length of employment. In one or two countries it would appear to be a fixed number of days annually, irrespective of length of service during the preceding twelve months. A collective agreement in Switzerland relates the length of the holiday to earning capacity. The annual holiday of construction workers who are employed continuously throughout the year ranges from six to eighteen working days, and the holiday period is frequently extended for young workers under a specified age. Sickness, accident, annual holiday and military service are the most commonly accepted reasons for periods of absence which are not deducted when calculating length of service for holiday purposes. The maximum period for which absences of this kind will be disregarded is usually stipulated.

The amount of holiday pay is dependent on the total length of employment and also, in most cases, on earning capacity. There is, however, considerable variation in the methods of calculation. The holiday allowance may, for instance, be based on the average wage per day over a specified period, on a fraction or a percentage of average total earnings or of gross earnings during a stated length of time, usually the pay period, on the ordinary time rate of pay for the normal weekly number of hours of work, or on a uniform flat rate per week of employment. Sometimes it is merely stated that holiday pay shall be based on "full wages" or on "earnings", without further definition. In one or two countries a *pro rata* deduction may be made for unauthorised absence of a certain duration. As a rule holiday pay is forfeited if the worker takes paid employment during his vacation. It is sometimes stipulated that if a worker dies before he takes the holiday to which

he is entitled, his holiday allowance will be paid to his family or to his legal representatives. A provision of the recent Norwegian holiday legislation lays down that holiday remuneration shall not be paid to a worker who leaves his employment without observing the statutory period of notice or who is dismissed for gross negligence, but that this money is payable to his wife or any children maintained by him, and, if he has no dependants, to the annual holiday fund.

In those countries where the number of days' holiday is based on length of service, the allowance for each day of the holiday has a definite relation to the worker's daily wage when in employment. On the other hand, if the worker is entitled to an annual holiday of a fixed duration each year, irrespective of length of employment, his holiday credits from irregular periods of work may be quite inadequate to cover the cost of a holiday of the length permitted. Workers whose employment fluctuates would therefore appear to be at a disadvantage in comparison with full-time workers under both methods of calculating the length of the holiday; either they have a shorter holiday with normal pay, or they are entitled to a holiday of the same length as other workers but with less than the full amount of remuneration. In the latter case they are presumably not, as a general rule, obliged to take the whole period, and in fact may not wish to do so, on account of the intermittent periods of unemployment which fall to their lot during the course of the year. In the event of the undertaking closing down for the holiday period, however, it might happen that a worker is compelled to take the full holiday to which he is entitled whether or not his holiday allowance enables him to benefit from it.

In several countries where one year's continuous service is the condition for a holiday with pay, workers who are unable to fulfil this requirement are given, when they leave the undertaking, cash payment in proportion to the time they have served. This practice may prevent an employer whose industry enables him to employ casual rather than regular workers from enjoying an advantage over other employers who are not so placed. It may also deter an unscrupulous employer from evading his obligations by discharging workers before they have qualified for a holiday. There is, however, another factor which would seem to merit consideration in a system of holiday payments on the termination of short spells of employment. Such a practice may defeat what is commonly deemed to be the main object of a holiday, that is, "to secure to employed persons opportunities for rest, recreation and the development of their faculties".[1] The worker may quite possibly take holidays now and again during the course of the year at the end of periods of employment, with the money he receives when he leaves

[1] The definition given in the Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1936.

the undertaking, but it would seem probable that holidays taken in this way might be in short, broken spells and unlikely to have the beneficial effects of longer periods of rest and change.

As regards the time at which the holiday is granted, it is often left to the employer to fix definite dates within a specified period, usually the summer months, provided that the holiday is given within a certain time after the worker has become entitled to it. In a few countries provision is made for consultation with the workers concerned. There is occasionally a qualification that the whole holiday, or part of it, may be taken outside the period stipulated for workers in general, if inconvenience would otherwise be caused to the undertaking owing to the seasonal nature of the work. Sometimes it is merely stated that the holiday must be granted within a certain number of months after it falls due, and there are no other restrictions.

The fixing of the period during which annual holidays must be granted to workers engaged in industries particularly affected by climatic conditions, such as building and public works, is of some significance, as it would seem desirable that the annual period of rest and change should, as far as possible, coincide with a time of the year conducive to health and open-air activities if the full benefits of the holiday are to be realised. The season which is propitious for many branches of construction work is also, however, in the majority of countries a suitable time for holiday making. A provision requiring joint consultation in respect of the period during which at any rate the main part of the annual holiday must be granted would seem to merit consideration.

A number of the countries whose arrangements for the grant of annual holidays with pay have been described provide for the establishment, by statute, collective agreement or other method, of holiday funds responsible for the payment of holiday remuneration. The resources of these funds are derived from employers' contributions based on a percentage of wages and salaries. Payment is made to individual workers when they are about to take their holiday, the amount being determined by the worker's record of employment. Use is commonly made of the device of holiday books, or their equivalent, recording periods of work, rates of pay and other data, and of stamps representing the holiday credits earned by the worker concerned. The funds may be set up and administered by the Government, by an employers' or workers' organisation, or by a special company formed for the purpose. It may be autonomous or affiliated to a general social security fund. It may be responsible for the holiday remuneration of workers in general, or it may be established specifically for construction workers. The whole of the holiday remuneration may be paid by the last employer before the worker takes his vacation, the amount being subsequently recovered from the holiday fund, or it may be sent direct by the fund to the employee in question, or the worker may draw the money himself on presentation of his

holiday book at an appointed place. Thus, the nature of the competent body and the details of the organisation of the schemes in force in the various countries differ ; the basic principle underlying the different arrangements is, however, the same. It is the accumulation of holiday credits in proportion to earnings and work performed, or of a uniform weekly value, which can be cashed when the holiday falls due.

A system of holiday funds in conjunction with books and stamps, or their equivalent, enables holiday remuneration to be earned for short spells of work, to be carried forward from one period of employment to the next irrespective of changes of employer, and to be available when required to finance the holiday. It would seem that a system of this kind, which preserves the holiday rights of workers such as construction workers, whose employment is irregular, is well adapted to protect them from the hazards of their trade and to overcome the practical difficulties in the matter of paid holidays mentioned in the Committee's resolution to which reference was made in the introduction to this survey. It also complies with one of the suggested principles of the Conference Recommendation concerning annual holidays with pay, namely, "that the cost arising from the granting of the holidays shall not fall entirely upon the last employer".

Labour-Management Co-operation in the Undertaking

Recent Surveys in France, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada

During recent years much progress has been made in the establishment of joint consultative machinery for labour-management co-operation in undertakings, either through legislative measures or by means of collective agreements. The extent to which such machinery is now employed in four countries—France, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada—is reflected in the results of recent official surveys, the subject of the following summary. It may be mentioned that the broader question of co-operation between public authorities and employers' and workers' organisations was treated in the report on industrial relations submitted to the 31st Session of the International Labour Conference in 1948 [1] *and is an item on the agenda of the 32nd Session.*

The four surveys of joint consultative machinery at the level of the undertaking which are summarised below differ in their approach and seek to obtain different results. The French survey is based on a recent enquiry into the activities of works committees conducted by the labour and manpower inspection services. The survey contains an estimate of the number of committees in existence and the proportion to be found in various industries, and analyses their activities with regard to *(a)* economic and technical matters and *(b)* social welfare matters. For the United Kingdom, the report was intended to show the progress made since 1947 in establishing machinery for joint consultation in industry. The United States survey was undertaken to determine the current status of the joint production committees which had been established as a wartime measure. The information for Canada is, in effect, a statistical note on existing labour-management committees, issued by the governmental service responsible for promoting the formation of such committees.

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[1] International Labour Conference, Thirty-first Session, San Francisco, 1948, Report VIII (1): *Industrial Relations* (International Labour Office, Geneva, 1947), Part IV.

The Activities of the French Works Committees

In France, under an Ordinance dated 22 January 1945 as amended by an Act of 16 May 1946 [1], works committees must be set up in all industrial and commercial undertakings, public law offices, the liberal professions, non-commercial companies *(sociétés civiles)* and associations of every kind which ordinarily employ not less than 50 persons. Important economic and social functions are assigned to these committees.[2]

Investigations have recently been carried out by the divisional labour and manpower inspectors in order to ascertain to what extent the works committees have actually been set up and how far they are accomplishing their mission. The results of the enquiry were summarised in a report [3], from which the essential data given below have been drawn.

Number of Committees

The number of undertakings subject to the regulations may be estimated at about 15,000, and more than 10,000 committees have been set up. Altogether 75 to 80 per cent. of the committees envisaged by the legislation are already in existence, although the proportion varies considerably from one region to another. It has been found that in general it is more difficult to set up the committees in small establishments.

For the Paris area it was possible to make an occupational classification, which showed that the proportion of committees was particularly high in the following industries: chemical industry, 92 per cent.; printing industry, 91 per cent.; wood industry, 90 per cent.; metallurgical industry, 88 per cent. In the following groups, on the other hand, the proportion was very much lower: hide and leather industry, 72 per cent.; clothing industry, 66 per cent.; building and public works, 76 per cent.; commercial undertakings, 78 per cent.; non-commercial companies and associations, 53 per cent.

The above differences reflect fairly closely the difficulties met with in setting up works committees, such as the difficulty of applying the regulations in industrial or commercial undertakings engaging in several branches of activity or with several distinct establishments (boot and shoe stores, building undertakings, multiple stores); the absence of candidates in occupations where trade unionism is less advanced (clothing industry, liberal professions,

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LI, No. 6, June 1945, p. 770, and Vol. LIV, Nos. 1-2, July-August 1946, p. 93. For the full text of this legislation, see International Labour Office: *Legislative Series*, 1945—Fr. 8 and 1946—Fr. 8.

[2] See International Labour Office, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 9: *La participation des organisations professionnelles à la vie économique et sociale en France* (Geneva, 1948; English edition in preparation).

[3] "L'activité des comités d'entreprise: rapport de synthèse", in *Revue française du travail*, No. 7, July 1948, pp. 287-300.

non-commercial companies); disputes concerning the coverage of the regulations (semi-public agencies, associations of recognised public utility).

Economic Activities

Section 3 of the Ordinance of 22 February 1945, as amended, provides that in the economic field each works committee shall have the following advisory functions:

(a) It shall investigate every suggestion made by the management or the employees with a view to increasing production and improving the output of the undertaking, and shall make proposals for the adoption of the suggestions approved by it. It may express wishes relating to the general organisation of the undertaking.

(b) It shall recommend such rewards as appear to it to be deserved by employees whose initiative or proposals have rendered their collaboration particularly valuable to the undertaking.

(c) Consultation of the works committee on questions concerning the organisation, management and general running of the undertaking shall be compulsory.

(d) The supplying of information to the works committee concerning the profits made by the undertaking shall be compulsory, and the committee may make suggestions for their utilisation.

It is also provided that the works committees shall have the right to give their views concerning price increases. They may be consulted by the public officials responsible for price fixing and control.

The labour inspectors' investigations in the economic field were concerned mainly with the activities of the committees in regard to the general working of the undertakings, their technical organisation and the financial results obtained.

General Direction of Activities

In directing the general activities of an undertaking the management has to take decisions as to their concentration on particular lines of production and the development or even introduction of particular branches of activity, and may thus have to look for new markets, launch new products, transform the plant, or even modify the whole structure of the establishment. All these are points on which it is required under section 3 *(c)* of the Works Committees Ordinance, as amended, to consult the works committees.

The report shows, however, that for the most part employers merely give their works committees a general idea of these matters without going into greater detail. The only case in which they provide fuller information is that of mass dismissal for economic reasons (development or abandonment of a particular line of production owing to the situation with regard to raw materials, supplies or marketing possibilities). Difficulties often arise when the members

of the committee consider that they should not only be kept informed but consulted before any decisions are taken and ask for full and precise information. Important decisions are often taken by the management without previous consultation with the committee. The labour inspectors are then called in, but as the competence of the works committees in this respect is not very clearly defined by law, the solution of problems of this nature becomes a very delicate matter.

Among the committees which have nevertheless played a relatively important part in this field are most of the central works committees in large undertakings comprising several plants. In this case the members are chosen from a very numerous personnel and often possess marked intellectual qualities and welldeveloped critical faculties. The same may be said of the works committees in the nationalised undertakings and in most of the larger metal works and building firms.

Technical Organisation

In general, employers are more ready to concede the prerogatives of the committees in the purely technical field than in the field of general direction or of the actual conduct of the undertaking. Not only do they consult the committees on problems of organisation, but they often have reason to be satisfied with the solutions proposed by the technical study groups set up by the committees, such as their sections, subcommittees or groups on planning, analysis, output, standards (particularly in the building industry), allocation of jobs, time studies, etc.

Various committees have made useful suggestions concerning the organisation of production to attain specified targets, the material organisation of offices and workshops, scientific management, the modification of techniques, the renewal of plant, the simplification of methods, the division of labour, etc. More than once, suggestions emanating from the committees have obtained practical results of value, and some of the changes proposed have led to a considerable saving of time in production. The authors of such suggestions have often been rewarded. In a steelworks, for instance, a sum of 308,000 francs was awarded to the employees concerned, on the recommendation of the committee. In this connection, the labour inspectors have drawn attention to the influence of supervisory personnel in the production subcommittees, which function normally as long as they remain technical in character and are not deflected from their true purpose, which is to seek a level compatible, on the one hand, with the interests of the undertaking and, on the other, with those of the personnel (optimum working conditions and remuneration in relation to work done).

In some cases, the committees have intervened with the industrial production authorities in order to obtain an allocation of raw materials or to extend sales, thus preventing the closing down of the factory or reduction of its activities.

Many firms have found that, besides providing an opportunity to the workers to extend their professional and technical knowledge through discussion, the works committee tends to create an awareness of the kind of equilibrium needed for the satisfactory working of the undertaking. The employer admits that there is room for " humanisation " in production, and the employees are better able to appraise the difficulties and the need for adjustment between the economic and social factors in the running of an enterprise.

Financial Results of Working

In this field, the function of the committee is more one of supervision than of actual participation in the management.

In some cases trade unions have urged members of the committees to follow the question of distribution of profits very closely, and some have also organised courses of training for them. But most of the members continue to take a somewhat elementary view of profits, and this, combined with the feeling that the accounts show only a part of the true profits, creates an atmosphere of distrust and doubt.

There are, however, some noteworthy instances of profit-sharing. In one undertaking, 1,545,000 francs were distributed among the personnel for the year 1945-46, according to seniority and family responsibilities. In another case, the management of a rope-making factory placed a third of the profits at the disposal of the works committee. The manager of a jute-spinning mill distributed among the personnel a sum equal to that paid out of the year's profits to shareholders. In other undertakings the works committees have asked that a part of the profits should be paid to the workers in the form of New Year bonuses.

The report makes the general observation that the members of works committees very often approach the examination of profits in a spirit of systematic criticism which does not conduce to the improvement of relations between employers and employees. On the other hand, their views on the question of costs are always regarded with suspicion by the employers.

Social Activities

All the divisional labour inspectors are agreed that it is in the social field that the works committees have best fulfilled the mission assigned to them.

Under section 2 of the Works Committees Act, the works committees " shall co-operate with the management in the improvement of the conditions under which the employees in general work and live ". The report deals more particularly with their activities in regard to health and safety, wages and the administration of social services.

Health and Safety

Section 2 of the Decree of 1 August 1947, consolidating legislation on the establishment of health and safety services in undertakings [1], lays down that where there is a works committee, the health and safety committee acts as a special subcommittee of the works committee. In practice, the health and safety subcommittees sometimes tend to function separately, although the works committees continue to discuss general health and safety questions and keep in touch with the specialised subcommittees.

Wages

In theory the works committees are required to study the problem of wages in relation to the organisation of the undertaking and the results of its working. In practice, however, this question is more often severed from the rest and examined separately. The result is that they tend to put forward demands of a kind which ought to be presented only by the staff delegates specially appointed for such complaints under the Act of 16 April 1946.[2]

Nevertheless, in quite a number of cases the committees have studied systems of output bonuses and collective bonuses, which have been adopted by the management. Some of them have tried to promote the award of bonuses for technical ability, regularity of work, work in unhealthy conditions, etc. They have taken part in the calculation and checking of job timing.

The report concludes that, in general, the activities of the works committees with regard to wages have led to improvements in the workers' pay and at the same time to increased output.

Administration of Social Services

Under section 2 of the Ordinance of 22 February 1945, the works committees shall " provide for or supervise the operations of all the welfare schemes established in the undertaking for the benefit of the employees or their families, or shall take part in the said operation, irrespective of the manner in which it is financed ". Detailed regulations on the subject were issued in a Decree of 2 November 1945.[3]

Welfare Institutions for Employees.

Factory canteens are managed or supervised by the works committees. Many committees have devoted their efforts to improving the quality and presentation of meals, as well as to reducing the deficit due to the difference between the prices charged and the cost price of the meals. It has been noted that several

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVI, No. 4, October 1947, p. 455.

[2] *Idem*, Vol. LIV, Nos. 1-2, July-August 1946, p. 95. See also *Legislative Series*, 1946—Fr. 7.

[3] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LIII, Nos. 5-6, May-June 1946, p. 397. See also *Legislative Series*, 1945—Fr. 8 (B).

committees, after trying to manage the canteen, have given up and limited themselves to its supervision, leaving the actual running of the canteen to the employer.

Co-operative stores and group purchasing societies are generally organised only in the larger undertakings, and even there they tend either to disappear or to limit their operations. The report, however, stresses the service which these bodies render in supplying the personnel with food, shoes, clothing, etc., at prices well below the market price.

Where housing is provided for the workers, the dwellings, which with few exceptions are those in existence before the war, are generally managed by the employer.

Workers' allotments are usually run by the works committees. These allotments represent a great saving to the workers and are thus one of the most appreciated of the welfare services. The distribution of working hours usually leaves two free days a week, which can be very usefully devoted to gardening. Collective cultivation has also made it possible for produce to be supplied to the personnel on favourable terms.

Crèches and day nurseries have for the most part been set up only in the very large undertakings. It appears, moreover, that in big industrial centres neither employers nor works committees are in favour of factory crèches, which are of little use to workers who live far from their work, since the journeys by underground, train or bus involved are prejudicial to the health of young children. On the other hand, it appears easier to develop a system of local nurseries (usually municipal) subsidised by interested undertakings. In this case, the municipality receives financial aid, the workers' needs are more fully met, and the employers and works committees are spared a great responsibility.

Holiday camps are generally run by employers' or workers' organisations, private associations or public bodies. Few establishments, except the very largest, have sufficient means at their disposal to undertake this service. The works committees, however, take a great interest in the camps, which absorb a large part of the grants made by employers. The various problems arising on this subject are easily solved by mutual consent. In some cases, the committees prefer to exercise supervision only and leave the running of the camp to the managers of the undertaking. In other cases, the welfare officer takes charge, under the authority of the works committee.

Friendly societies and mutual aid funds have sometimes been set up at the suggestion of works committees. These provide benefits in the event of marriage, birth, death, maternity or illness.

Recreation Facilities.

Camping parties and excursions are arranged in a number of undertakings, with or without the patronage of the works committee. Visits to museums, exhibitions, etc., are conducted by guides. Some undertakings have a stadium, but the majority hire ground from the

municipality or a sports association or some other concern. Football, basket-ball and athletic teams are formed, and there is often a subcommittee of the works committee which takes charge of all problems of training and the arrangement of sporting events.

In many undertakings, even among the small and medium-sized establishments, festivals of various kinds are organised.

Technical and Educational Institutions.

With very few exceptions, only the largest undertakings possess a library worthy of the name. In some cases lectures are given on technical or literary subjects or visits are organised to factories, cultural centres and art exhibitions. A number of works committees have a bulletin or factory newspaper, which appears once a month or once every two months.

Only some of the larger undertakings, particularly in industry, have set up apprenticeship and vocational training centres, which are supervised by the works committees. Domestic science courses have been instituted in some undertakings for the benefit of young women workers. One divisional labour inspector considers that in his district the works committees have had a very beneficial influence on the setting up and development of apprenticeship schools.

Medical and Social Welfare Services.

Factory medical services are the responsibility of employers, and the functions which devolve upon the works committees (in particular, preparation of annual reports, agreement on the appointment and retention of doctors, and expression of views on the working of the service at monthly meetings) do not give rise to many difficulties. In fact, annual reports are rarely prepared, and any differences with regard to dismissal or retention of medical personnel are easily dealt with by the labour inspectors. Some committees have intervened to request improvements in the organisation of medical services, among other things, to save the workers from having to make unnecessary journeys or from wasting time.

With regard to the social welfare services entrusted to women welfare officers, the exercise of the limited powers of the works committees in this field create few difficulties. The report emphasises, however, that the labour inspectors prefer to retain the services only of welfare officers who have the confidence of the personnel, in view of the very delicate task assigned to them.

Conclusion

The report concludes that the works committees have undoubtedly contributed to an increase in production by the suggestions which they have put forward concerning the organisation of undertakings, and by the improvement in the social atmosphere which has been brought about wherever the committees have been able to act in a constructive and efficient manner.

The operation of the works committees is, however, in many cases hampered by difficulties arising out of the interpretation of the regulations with regard to the economic powers of the committees, and the inadequacy of the regulations in certain respects, such as the financing of social services.

Joint Consultative Machinery in the United Kingdom

The National Joint Advisory Council in the United Kingdom, which is the body set up to advise the Government on matters of common interest to employers and workers [1], had agreed in 1947 to recommend to employers' organisations and trade unions the establishment of joint consultative machinery for the regular exchange of views between employers and workers on production questions, where machinery of this character did not already exist. It was also agreed that the Ministry of Labour and National Service should prepare and circulate to the Council reports showing the progress made in establishing such joint machinery. The first of these reports [2], hereafter summarised in part, was submitted on 28 July 1948. It shows that progress had been made in a substantial number of industries, though in some industries no conclusion had yet been reached.

The Ministry made enquiries in 54 industries as to how far joint production committees, or similar bodies, were already functioning in accordance with joint agreements, and whether any steps were being taken to promote such committees, and it offered the assistance of the Ministry services where desired. The replies enabled the Ministry to make an approximate classification of the situation in 38 of the industries approached. The remaining 16 industries had either not yet given consideration to the question or had not come to an agreement. The results of the classification of the 38 industries are set out below.

(1) Industries where the national organisations on each side have agreed to recommend to their members the establishment of joint committees in accordance with some form of model constitution which specifically provides for the consideration of matters relating to production:

> Engineering (it has been confirmed by both sides that an agreement of 1942 is still operative); iron and steel; film production; electric cable making; rubber manufacture (the agreement not yet in final form).

(2) Industries where the national organisations have agreed to recommend or approve the establishment of joint consultative machinery at factory level if such machinery is desired by both sides in any establishment,

[1] The Council was set up by agreement with the British Employers' Federation and the Trades Union Congress in October 1939 and was reconstituted in 1946. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LIV, Nos. 5-6, November-December 1946, p. 369.

[2] "Joint Consultative Machinery: Report on Progress Submitted to National Joint Advisory Council", in *Ministry of Labour Gazette*, August 1948, pp. 259-260.

but have left the form which such machinery should take for determination by agreement in the establishments concerned :

Carpet manufacture ; boot and shoe manufacture; chemicals; rayon yarn producing ; hosiery ; silk ; printing (the representation of the workers to be based on the existing " chapel " organisation).

(3) Industries where the national organisations are satisfied with existing arrangements for joint discussion which permit the establishment of works committees or councils by local agreement with powers to discuss matters relating to production :

Flour milling ; cement (an agreement of 1920 sets out a model constitution for a works committee) ; cast stone and cast concrete products ; seed crushing, compound and provender ; Welsh plate and sheet ; veneer producing and plywood ; asbestos manufacture ; cocoa, chocolate and confectionery ; Welsh engineers and founders ; wallpaper making ; match manufacture.

(4) Industries in which existing arrangements are considered adequate by both sides, although in general no formal machinery for the purpose of joint consultation exists in individual establishments :

Cotton manufacture ; heating, ventilating and domestic engineering ; paper and paper board manufacture.

(5) Industries which are known to be giving joint consideration to the question :

Clothing ; shipbuilding ; furniture ; biscuits ; building brick and allied products ; quarrying ; cotton spinning ; paint, varnish and lacquer ; home grown timber trade ; drug and fine chemicals ; soap, candle, and edible fat ; iron, steel and non-ferrous scrap industry.

It thus appears that in 38 of the main industries in the country consideration has already been given to the question of joint consultation machinery, and that in 23 of these industries (classes 1, 2 and 3) new arrangements are being introduced or existing arrangements are being developed to provide in one way or another suitable machinery for joint consultation.

Joint Production Committees in the United States

In January 1948 the United States Department of Labor sent an enquiry to some 3,000 plants in which joint labour-management committees had been established by agreement as a wartime measure to increase production [1] and were actively functioning in July 1945, to determine the current status of such committees. According to the report published on the results of the enquiry [2], of the 1,272

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVII, No. 1, January 1943, pp. 22-45. For a detailed study of this machinery, see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 6 : *Labour-Management Co-operation in United States War Production* (Montreal, 1948).

[2] " Joint Production Committees, January 1948 ", in *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 67, No. 2, August 1948, pp. 123-126.

replies received, 944 provided usable information, 148 indicated that no records of wartime activities were available, and 180 indicated that no committee had ever been established despite the previous registration of a functioning committee with the War Production Board. Similar enquiries were sent to 580 local unions listed as bargaining agents in the plants which provided positive information regarding their committees. The unions replied in 126 instances.

The report states that a comparison of the information independently supplied by managements and union officials indicated substantial agreement with respect to the history and activities of the committees. Some differences as to the existence of a committee resulted from varying interpretations as to the proper constitution of a labour-management committee, but in each instance there was in existence a committee which included union members.

As the enquiries addressed to plants which failed to reply were not followed up, the report comes to no conclusion as to the proportion of all wartime committees which were sufficiently successful to warrant their continuance into peacetime operations. The returns show, however, that several hundred such committees are still functioning as a part of peacetime manufacturing operations.

Status of Committees

In 787 plants of the 944 for which usable information was received, a union had been recognised as a bargaining agent ; 157 were non-union plants. Of these, 564 union and 93 non-union plants reported that their committees had been discontinued at the end of the war or shortly thereafter. In 223 union and 64 non-union plants committees were reported as still functioning. Table I gives the status of wartime labour-management production committees in 944 manufacturing plants, by size and unionisation of plant, in 1947.

Discontinued Committees

With reference to the discontinued committees, the report states that a large number of wartime committees were organised solely in connection with strictly wartime activities and were discontinued as a result of the end of the war. The various reasons advanced for discontinuing the committees active in January-June 1945 are shown in table II.

The report notes that, in general, the comments received indicated that the committees had functioned successfully during their existence. Only 133 were reported as having been discontinued because they were ineffective. However, the available information did not indicate whether either management or labour had made an effort to fit the discontinued committees into peacetime operation. Some

TABLE I. DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS WITH ACTIVE AND WITH DISCONTINUED COMMITTEES ACCORDING TO SIZE OF PLANT

Number of employees in plant in 1947	Total no. of plants	Plants with active committees in 1947			Plants in which committees were discontinued		
		Total	Union	Non-union	Total	Union	Non-union
Under 50	50	14	6	8	36	16	20
50 and under 100	73	27	16	11	46	33	13
100 and under 500.	307	110	83	27	197	175	22
500 and under 1,000	145	52	44	8	93	85	8
1,000 and under 2,000	94	29	25	4	65	62	3
2,000 and under 3,000	33	8	7	1	25	23	2
3,000 and under 4,000	27	8	7	1	19	19	0
4,000 and under 5,000	14	3	2	1	11	11	0
5,000 and over	37	5	5	0	32	26	6
Unknown	164	31	28	3	133	114	19
Total	944	287	223	64	657	564	93

TABLE II. NUMBER OF DISCONTINUED COMMITTEES CLASSIFIED BY DURATION AND BY REASON FOR DISCONTINUING

Reason for discontinuing committee	Total number of committees	Duration					
		Under 6 months	6 and under 12 months	1 and under 2 years	2 and under 3 years	3 years and over	Unknown
End of war	272	0	3	36	69	119	45
Ineffective.	133	8	13	31	37	26	18
Lack of interest	135	4	6	24	40	46	15
Plant closed after war	14	1	0	3	2	7	1
Problems handled by other unreported methods	19	0	0	3	6	7	3
No reason given	84	2	0	7	10	24	41
Total	657	15	22	104	164	229	123

replies showed that many of the activities developed by the committees were being continued despite the discontinuance of the committee.

Active Committees

The 287 committees reported as still functioning in January 1948 were operating in plants ranging in size from 15 to over 40,000 employees. The committees generally included an equal number of labour and management representatives and most often numbered 6 or 10 members, though the range was from 3 to 27. Management representation generally included both policy-making and operating officials. In the majority of the unionised plants, labour representation included both union officials and rank-and-file members, but about one fifth of the plants limited membership of the committees to union officers or plant stewards. Non-union employees were generally given a part of the representation in plants where the unit for collective bargaining did not cover all employees.

The replies concerning the activities of these committees covered only the last six months of 1947, thus making it impossible to define the scope of a typical committee. It was clear, however, that the

TABLE III. DISTRIBUTION OF LABOUR-MANAGEMENT COMMITTEES BY SUBJECTS CONSIDERED DURING LAST HALF OF 1947

Subjects considered	Number of plants reporting action on each subject					
	Total		Union		Non-union	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Production problems (efficiency, etc.)	221	77.0	170	76.2	51	79.7
Suggestions by workers	214	74.6	160	71.7	54	84.4
Care of tools and equipment	163	56.8	116	52.0	47	73.4
Improving work quality	197	68.6	148	66.4	49	76.6
Curtailing absenteeism	184	64.1	147	65.9	37	57.8
Job training	87	30.3	68	30.5	19	29.7
Job evaluation	85	29.6	70	31.4	15	23.4
Production time standards (piece rates, premium rates, etc.)	93	32.4	74	33.2	19	29.7
Safety	243	84.7	186	83.4	57	89.1
Welfare (child care, housing, transportation, etc.)	83	28.9	60	26.9	23	35.9
Health problems (medical care, sanitation, first aid, etc.)	167	58.2	122	54.7	45	70.3
Recreation	131	45.6	94	42.2	37	57.8
Others	53	18.5	37	16.6	16	25.0
All plants	287	100.0	223	100.0	64	100.0

committees examined practically any problem affecting both management and labour. Table III shows the activities of the 287 labour-management committees during the second half of 1947.

The report states that active committees held regular scheduled meetings at intervals ranging from three times a week to once in each quarter, the most popular schedule being one meeting each month. Most of the active committees recorded their minutes, but endeavoured to keep the meetings as informal as possible and to reach decisions through general agreement rather than by vote. The minutes were commonly distributed to all interested persons.

Joint Production Committees in Canada

In Canada, the Labour-Management Co-operation Service of the Department of Labour encourages the voluntary formation in industry of committees, representing labour and management, for the purpose of encouraging and improving production.[1] A recent report of the Service [2] shows a steady increase in the number of such committees.

The report states that leading employer and employee organisations have continued their support of the committees. According to the records of the Service, on 31 December 1947 there were 542 labour-management production committees in Canadian plants. This represented an increase of 292 since the end of 1944 when a listing of committees was first maintained, and of 196 since the end of the war. Of the 542 committees listed, 256 were in Ontario and 108 were in Quebec. In the remaining provinces there were : Prince Edward Island, 2 ; Nova Scotia, 39 ; New Brunswick, 21 ; Manitoba, 43 ; Saskatchewan, 19 ; Alberta, 10 ; and British Columbia, 44. Manufacturing industries accounted for 318, and transportation for 116, out of a total of 533 committees.

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. L, No. 1, January 1945, p. 80.

[2] "Formation of Production Committees Sponsored by Labour-Management Co-operation Service ", in *Labour Gazette* (Ottawa), Vol. XLVIII, No. 2, March 1948, pp. 158-159.

STATISTICS

The periodical statistics of labour conditions in different countries are at present published in the *Review* as follows :

Monthly : Unemployment and employment ; cost of living and food prices.

Quarterly (February, May, August, November) : Wages and hours of work.

Unemployment and Employment

The tables show :

I. Number of unemployed or applicants for work.

II. Index numbers of the *general level* of employment.

III. *(a)* Index numbers of the level of *employment in manufacturing.*

(b) Index numbers of total hours worked in *manufacturing employment.*

Cost of Living and Food Prices

The table shows index numbers of the cost of living covering generally the main groups of expenditure, *viz.*, food, fuel and light, clothing, rent and miscellaneous, and, in the lower half, the corresponding index number of retail food prices.

Wages and Hours of Work

The tables on wages group together the most comparable data in two sections, namely :

(a) Hourly rates or earnings ;

(b) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings.

The tables on hours of work relate to :

(a) Hours actually worked per worker ;

(b) Percentage distribution of workers by hours worked.

SYMBOLS AND TYPES EMPLOYED

.	=	not available or do not exist.
...	=	not yet received.
*	=	provisional.
–	=	nil or negligible.
r	=	revised since previous issue.
e	=	represented by a few branches only.
o	=	relates to men only (wages tables).
——	=	when placed between two figures of a series, that the former has been replaced by another or revised series.

Thick faced type : index numbers based on 1937 = **100**.
Italics : index numbers based on another year as base.
Figures in brackets : series subject to certain reservations.

The countries are arranged by continents in the alphabetical order of their English names.

Note : Figures for the separate industries, etc., covered by these series are given in tables VI, IX, XI and XIV of the *Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1947-48* ; index numbers of the groups fuel and light, clothing, and rent, covered by the cost-of-living index numbers, are given in table XVIII.

Further information on the scope and significance of these statistics is given in each January issue of the *Review* (see Vol. LIX, No. 1, January 1949, pp. 85-96). For notes on the methods of computation, see the descriptions commencing with the June 1948 issue of the *Review*.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date	Africa	America					
	Nigeria [1]	Canada				United States	
	V	II		I		II	
	Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (estimated)		Unemployed (insured)		Unemployed (estimated) [2]	
			%		%		%
1937	.	337 000	12.5	.	.	7 700 000	14.3
1938	.	407 000	15.1	.	.	10 390 000	19.0
1939	.	386 000 [3]	14.1 [3]	.	.	9 480 000	17.2
1940	.	281 700 [3]	10.1 [3]	.	.	8 120 000 [4]	14.6 [4]
1941	.	370 000 [5]	8.0 [5]	.	.	5 560 000	9.9
1942	.	238 000	5.3	.	.	2 660 000	4.7
1943	.	99 000	2.2	.	.	1 070 000	1.9
1944	7 272	82 000	1.8	10 454	0.5	670 000	1.2
1945	7 562	172 000 [6]	3.8 [6]	41 139	1.9	1 040 000	1.9
1946	7 264	143 000	3.0	96 760	4.5	2 270 000	3.9
1947	6 874	98 000	2.0	68 254	3.0	2 142 000	3.6
1948	...	103.000	2.1	88 909	3.8	2 064 000	3.4
1947 : Dec.	5 635	.	.	94 525	4.1	1 643 000	2.8
1948 : Jan.	6 203	.	.	130 798	5.6	2 065 000	3.5
Feb.	6 962	156 000	3.2	146 074	6.2	2 639 000	4.4
Mar.	6 806	.	.	136 356	5.8	2 440 000	4.1
April	6 735	.	.	105 441	4.5	2 193 000	3.6
May	6 250	.	.	70 993	3.0	1 761 000	2.9
June	5 776	82 000	1.6	56 509	2.4	2 184 000	3.4
July	5 737	.	.	48 546	2.1	2 227 000	3.5
Aug.	6 245	.	.	44 273	1.9	1 941 000	3.1
Sept.	6 689	67 000	1.3	44 761	1.9	1 899 000	3.1
Oct.	6 437	.	.	55 384	2.4	1 642 000	2.7
Nov.	6 342	106 000	2.1	83 710	3.7	1 831 000	3.0
Dec.	...	.	.	144 058	6.3	1 941 000	3.2
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	4 908 [7]		2 340* [8]		60 168 [7]	

Date	America *(concl.)*		Asia				
	Puerto Rico		India	Japan		Palestine	
	II		V	VI		V [9]	
	Unemployed (estimated)		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (estimated)		Unemployed Wholly [10]	Partially [11]
		%			%		
1937	.	.	.	295 443	3.7	.	.
1938	.	.	.	237 371	3.0	.	.
1939	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1940	.	.	.	.	.	10 815	13 976
1941	.	.	.	.	.	5 495	9 882
1942	.	.	.	.	.	1 401	4 514
1943	.	.	.	.	.	358 [12]	3 233 [13]
1944	.	.	.	.	.	477	3 822
1945	.	.	.	.	.	382	4 035
1946	80 000 [13]	12.0 [13]	.	1 590 318 [14]	5.4 [14]	608	5 983
1947	76 000	11.0	.	. [15]	. [15]	...	...
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	89 000	12.8	236 734	440 000	1.3	...	...
1948 : Jan.	94 000	13.8	233 568	470 000	1.4	...	...
Feb.	74 000	10.6	216 551	360 000	2.0	...	...
Mar.	52 000	7.6	211 540	250 000	0.7	...	...
April	60 000	8.7	212 869	230 000	0.7	...	...
May	57 000	8.3	210 302	180 000	0 5	...	...
June	62 000	8.9	219 714	160 000	0.4	...	...
July	72 000	10.4	226 449	160 000	0.4	...	...
Aug.	75 000	11.0	...	160 000	0.4	...	...
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	688 [7]		.	35 250 [16]		.	

I. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
II. Labour force sample surveys.
III. Trade union fund returns.
IV. Trade union returns.
V. Employment office statistics.
VI. Official estimates.

[1] Lagos. [2] Since Sept. 1939, including previously unemployed wage earners who enlisted. [3] Jan.-Oct. [4] Commencing 1940, estimates obtained from monthly sample surveys of the labour force. [5] Estimates of beginning of June of each year between 1941 and 1944 adapted from census and other data. [6] Nov. Commencing this date, estimates based on quarterly sample surveys of the labour force. [7] Average for 1947. [8] Apr. 1948. [9] Jewish labour only. [10] Number of persons registered as unemployed for 21 days or more during the month. [11] Number of persons registered as unemployed for less than 21 days during the month. [12] Apr.-Dec. [13] Mar.-Dec. [14] Apr. ; estimates based on a census. [15] Since Oct. 1947, figures derived from monthly sample surveys of the labour force. [16] Oct. 1947.

Date	Europe							
	Austria	Belgium		Denmark		Finland	France	
	V	I		III		V	[1]	V
	Unemployed (registered)	Unemployed (insured) [2]		Unemployed (trade unionists)		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (on relief)	Applications for work registered
			%		%			
1937	320 961	126 535	.	95 103	21.9	3 695	354 554	379 994
1938	244 788 [3]	174 003	.	97 136	21.4	3 602	373 641	402 186
1939	66 000	195 211	.	88 924	18.4	3 300	381 902 [4]	418 413 [4]
1940	.	.	.	119 593	23.9	3 955	.	.
1941	.	.	.	43 476 [5]	8.0 [5]	3 384	292 649	394 534
1942	.	.	.	48 968	9.1	1 561	70 312	123 957
1943	.	.	.	34 272	6.3	923	19 878	41 552
1944	.	.	.	25 411	4.6	2 018	.	.
1945	.	144 579 [6]	.	46 661	8.2	3 240	15 813	68 436
1946	74 105	67 192	.	27 577	4.7	3 454	15 663	56 633
1947	52 839	67 724	3.1 [7]	28 796	4.9	4 199	7 389	45 738
1948	...	...	...	27 636	4.6	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	40 450	97 271	5.2	37 569	6.4	2 837	7 618	58 268
1948 : Jan.	50 093	105 290	5.6	65 553	11.2	5 398	9 339	74 004
Feb.	48 399	135 724	7.2	64 545	11.0	6 547	11 369	74 610
Mar.	46 687	95 451	5.1	27 689	4.7	5 582	12 386	68 184
April	45 899	94 679	5.0	15 236	2.6	7 234	11 964	70 505
May	47 355	94 045	5.0	8 197	1.4	6 644	13 399	71 302
June	48 989	104 717	5.6	7 565	1.3	3 608	14 609	72 963
July	51 691	129 274	6.9	7 917	1.3	3 906	16 659	71 198
Aug.	52 139	122 549	6.5	8 894	1.5	4 107	19 119	69 464
Sept.	51 851	124 233	6.6	10 943	1.8	4 653	19 472	76 006
Oct.	55 694	132 367	7.0	18 809	3.1	5 900	21 025	89 493
Nov.	...	173 862	9.2	25 512	4.2	9 641	24 001	97 257
Dec.	...	...	...	70 767 [14]	11.6 [15]	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	1 880 [8]		582 [9]		.	.	.

Date	Europe *(cont.)*						
	Germany [11]						Hungary
	All zones [10]	British zone	French zone	Soviet zone	U.S. zone		V
	Unemployed (registered)						Applications for work registered
		%					
1937	.	.	.	.	.	.	15 224
1938	.	.	.	.	.	.	17 796
1939	.	.	.	.	.	.	16 906
1940	.	.	.	.	.	.	11 437
1941	.	.	.	.	.	.	10 667
1942	.	.	.	.	.	.	8 651
1943	.	.	.	.	.	.	4 734
1944	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1945	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1946	1 361 000	5.2	334 400	45 000	258 000	485 800	22 266
1947	1 047 000 [12]	3.6 [12]	273 100 [13]	21 600	...	358 100 [13]	79 554
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	973 000 [12]	3.3 [12]	212 200	14 400	...	248 200	103 687
1948 : Jan.	.	.	217 700	.	.	257 200	110 189
Feb.	.	.	216 300	.	.	250 900	114 122
Mar.	...	...	216 600	17 300	...	245 900	117 004
April	.	.	224 100	.	.	236 400	117 054
May	.	.	213 600	.	.	225 400	116 068
June	...	...	217 100	16 800	...	239 200	118 525
July	.	.	335 000	23 600	.	342 600	89 545
Aug.	.	.	391 000	25 600	.	387 200	74 175
Sept.	...	...	393 600	...	...	362 500	...
Oct.	.	.	389 400	...	.	383 800	...
Nov.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	28 701 [9]	.	.	.	.	.	.

I. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
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VI. Official estimates.

[1] Public relief fund statistics. [2] Daily average of registered unemployed during the month. [3] Before Apr. 1938, applicants for work registered. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] New series of insured workers unemployed for more than one week; July-Dec. [6] Before Oct. 1944, voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. [7] Mar.-Dec. [8] Dec. 1946. [9] Average for 1947. [10] Including Berlin. [11] Labour registration statistics. [12] Figures for Dec. exclude the Saar territory. [13] Commencing 1947, figures for Land Bremen, previously included in British zone, are shown in U.S. zone. [14] Jan. 60 348.* [15] Jan. 9.9 per cent.*

Date	EUROPE *(cont.)*						
	Ireland			Italy	Netherlands	Norway	
	I		V	V	V	V	
	Unemployed (insured)		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (registered)	Wholly unemployed	Unemployed (registered)	
		%					%
1937	.	.	82 425	.	324 000	29 881	.
1938	.	.	88 714	.	303 400	30 296	.
1939	55 165	15.6	93 074	.	235 600	28 251	.
1940	54 677	15.5	84 054	.	197 886	29 099	.
1941	50 967	14.6	74 656	.	117 814	19 181 [1]	2.7 [1]
1942	48 846	14.2	76 887	.	74 600	4 747	0.7
1943	41 194	12.5	66 884 [2]	.	20 364	437	0.1
1944	36 263	11.3	59 047	.	.	—	—
1945	33 964	10.6	58 999	.	.	9 172 [3]	1.6 [3]
1946	35 067	10.6	59 726	1 654 872 [4]	53 079	12 246	2.0
1947	33 266	9.3	55 623	2 025 140	30 701	8 514	1.2
1948	35 130	9.6	61 203	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	31 392	8.8	63 546	1 778 820	30 552	12 057	1.7
1948 : Jan.	38 136	10.7	73 910	1 956 263	36 674	16 247	2.4
Feb.	40 726	11.4	79 927	2 132 867	35 983	16 358	2.4
Mar.	40 829	11.5	79 913	2 252 761	26 763	15 647	2.3
April	38 405	10.8	74 323	2 390 865	26 442	9 810	1.4
May	36 569	10.3	69 720	2 421 973	22 384	6 219	0.9
June	32 202	8.6	45 838	2 283 600	21 169	3 278	0.4
July	32 121	8.6	45 429	...	22 036	2 541	0.3
Aug.	32 034	8.5	45 221	...	24 785	...	0.6
Sept.	30 418	8.1	43 983	...	25 898	...	0.7
Oct.	31 802	8.5	46 424	1 752 187	28 770	...	0.7
Nov.	33 456	8.9	63 305	1 930 436	...	7 209	1.0
Dec.	34 863 [9]	9.3 [10]	66 442 [11]	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	356 [5]		.	.	.	.	

Date	EUROPE *(cont.)*						
	Poland	Portugal	Spain	Sweden		Switzerland	
	V	V	V	IV		I	V
	Unemployed (registered)	Unemployed (registered)	Unemployed	Unemployed (trade unionists)		Unemployed (insured)	Wholly unemployed
					%	%	
1937	375 088	17 158 [6]	.	67 351	10.8	10.0	57 949
1938	347 509	16 570 [6]	.	66 990	10.9	8.6	52 590
1939	.	17 885 [6]	.	63 722 [7]	9.2 [7]	6.5	36 663
1940	.	15 422 [6]	474 808	84 617	11.8	3.1	14 784
1941	.	13 626 [6]	450 014	85 018	11.3	2.0	9 095
1942	.	10 185 [6]	294 530	56 938	7.5	1.9	8 841
1943	.	4 968 [6]	225 493	43 950	5.7	1.4	6 058
1944	.	3 588 [6]	169 525	39 123	4.9	1.6	6 533
1945	.	3 130	147 946	36 272	4.5	1.6	6 474
1946	79 093	2 387	178 165	27 554	3.2	1.0	4 262
1947	69 419	1 799	138 771	24 362	2.8	0.8	3 473
1948	...	1 494	...	...	...	...	2 971
1947 : Dec.	60 229	1 620	122 673	39 764	4.5	1.4	5 031
1948 : Jan.	80 034	1 605	119 769	38 052	4.4	1.2	4 858
Feb.	87 096	1 603	116 755	37 555	4.2	1.0	6 260
Mar.	82 491	1 578	114 921	34 781	3.8	0.3	1 107
April	81 800 [8]	1 600	111 685	21 358	2.3	0.1	967
May	74 200 [8]	1 547	112 254	15 704	1.7	0.1	887
June	70 800 [8]	1 536	105 870	17 627	1.9	0.2	1 001
July	63 700 [8]	1 474	104 115	17 544 [7]	1.9 [7]	0.2	1 061
Aug.	70 400 [8]	1 412	110 215	15 510 [7]	1.7 [7]	0.2	1 229
Sept.	80 600 [8]	1 362	115 173	16 483 [7]	1.8 [7]	0.2	1 464
Oct.	...	1 407	124 508	17 634	1.9	0.3	2 157
Nov.	...	1 387	...	20 573	2.3	0.5	3 807
Dec.	...	1 421	...	...	...	...	10 857
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	.	876 [5]		548 [5]	.

I. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
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[1] Up to 1940, applicants. Introduction of an unemployment insurance scheme in 1941; figures for the war years are incomplete. [2] Since Jan. 1943, middle of month. [3] Since Jan. 1945, Finnmark and evacuated communes in Troms excluded. [4] Effective unemployment is estimated at 80 per cent. of the unemployed registered for the post-war period. [5] Oct. 1947. [6] Dec. [7] Since Jan. 1939, including agricultural workers. [8] Average for 1947. [9] Jan. 42 098. [10] Jan. 11.2 per cent. [11] Jan. 80 385.

Date	Europe *(concl.)*				Oceania					
	United Kingdom				Australia				New Zealand	
	I/V				IV	VI [1]			I	V
	Unemployed (insured)				Unemployed	Unemployed (estimated)			Unemployed [2]	Unemployed (registered)
	Wholly [3]		Temporarily							
		%		%	%		%			
1937	1 324 027 [4]	8.5	205 063	1.5	9.3	.	.		.	.
1938	1 487 363	9.5	380 332	2.5	8.7	.	.		.	.
1939	1 259 559	8.0	220 765	1.5	9.7	298 000	9.8		6 264 [5]	.
1940	752 966 [6]	5.0	165 088	1.0	8.0	.	.		4 352	.
1941	237 827 [7]	1.5	61 446	0.5	3.7	100 000	3.5		2 031	.
1942	110 628	1.0	8 489	—	1.6	33 500	1.3		810	.
1943	82 758	0.5	2 780	—	1.1	25 800	1.0		405	.
1944	75 613	0.5	2 316	—	1.2	.	.		329	.
1945	158 046	1.0	1 931	—	1.2	56 100	2.1		270	.
1946	390 106	2.5	4 058	—	1.4	134 000	4.3		172	386
1947	342 295	2.0	156 028	1.0	1.2	33 800	1.0		47	92
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		32	67
1947 : Dec.	299 411	2.0	7 796	—	.	...	...		27	41
1948 : Jan.	341 637	2.0	8 854	—	.	.	.		14	32
Feb.	339 907	2.0	8 128	—	0.9	.	.		9	32
Mar.	321 058	2.0	7 383	—	.	.	.		16	31
April	319 646	2.0	8 080	—	.	.	.		16	43
May	306 680	2.0	9 196	—	0.9	.	.		22	119
June	288 866	2.0	10 203	—	.	...	...		41	141
July	298 345 [8]	1.5 [8]	9 478 [8]	—	.	.	.		51	82
Aug.	315 442	1.5	9 573	—	0.9	.	.		41	68
Sept.	312 620	1.5	8 144	—	.	.	.		61	94
Oct.	331 609	1.5	7 357	—	.	.	.		48	54
Nov.	346 725	1.5	7 934	—	...	.	.		32	45
Dec.	350 165	1.5	8 845	—	.	...	...		36 [22]	61 [23]
Persons cov. (thousands)	15 930 [10]				718 [11]	3 251 [12]			.	.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL [13]

Indices of numbers employed (1937 = 100)

Date	Africa		America						
	Union of South Africa		Canada		United States			Argentina (Buenos Aires)	Colombia (Central Zone)
	Europeans	Total			B.L.S. [14]	B.C. [15]			
	III (A B)		III (A)	V	III (A/B)	V		III (A)	III (B)
	M.I.T. [9]		M.I.T.C. [9] [16]	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	I.T.C.	M.I.T. [9]
	W.S.		W.S.	W.S. [17]	W.S.	W.S. [17]		W.	W.
1937	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	.
1938	103.7	104.9	98.0	.	94.1	95.5	94.7	102.7	100.0 [18]
1939	105.5	105.8	99.8	.	98.6	98.8	99.1	104.8	*94.2*
1940	106.4	111.3	108.9	.	104.3	102.6	104.1	102.5	*84.6*
1941	110.1	117.6	133.5	*98.1* [19]	117.7	108.7	113.1	107.1	*85.5*
1942	111.9	120.3	152.2	*98.8*	129.2	116.1	122.0	111.5	*95.2*
1943	112.6	116.0	161.3	*100.0*	136.9	117.6	124.4	116.6	*101.9*
1944	113.5	117.1	160.4	*102.7*	135.0	116.5	123.4	123.1	*123.9*
1945	116.1	121.2	153.5	100.0 [20]	130.4	114.1	121.3	123.0	*128.8*
1946	121.8	124.5	151.8	*107.5*	135.1	119.3	128.6	...	*139.9*
1947	125.3	127.0	164.7	*111.2*	143.1	125.3	136.4	...	...
1948	...	...	...	*112.8*	...	128.2	140.9	...	...
1947 : Dec.	125.8	126.4	169.8	.	148.5	125.2	139.8	.	.
1948 : Jan.	126.6	125.5	165.9	.	145.2	123.4	137.3	.	.
Feb.	128.2	128.8	165.6	*107.9*	144.1	123.4	138.1	.	.
Mar.	128.9	129.5	163.5	.	145.2	123.8	138.4	.	.
April	129.0	129.3	163.5	.	144.2	126.0	139.5	.	.
May	129.3	129.6	168.5	.	145.3	126.7	139.3	.	.
June	129.5	129.3	173.5	*114.4*	146.5	132.4	142.3	.	.
July	129.7	128.8	176.1	.	146.7 [r]	133.1	143.8	.	.
Aug.	129.7	128.4	176.9 [r]	.	148.1	132.3	144.7	.	.
Sept.	130.0	128.2	178.2 [r]	*116.6*	149.3 [r]	130.3	141.4	.	.
Oct.	130.5	128.6	178.4 *	.	149.3	129.9	141.2	.	.
Nov.	...	...	...	*112.3*	148.8 *	129.4	142.4	.	.
Dec.	...	...	...	.	...	128.4	142.7	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands) [21]	219	813	1 936 [11]	4 326	.../30 718	46 300	36 480	.	14

[1] Annual figures June of each year, except 1939 and 1941 : July. [2] Persons in receipt of unemployment benefit. [3] Including casuals. [4] Including agriculture. [5] Apr.-Dec. [6] Since July 1940, excluding men in attendance at Government training centres who were unemployed when they entered the centres. [7] From the beginning of 1941 to the end of 1947, excluding persons classified as unsuitable for ordinary employment. Since 1948, excluding only registered disabled persons requiring employment under sheltered conditions. [8] Since July 1947, slightly wider coverage under new National Insurance Act. [9] Calculated on a new basis, *viz.*, total industrial population, including self-employed persons as well as employees. [10] July 1947. [11] Average for 1947. [12] June 1947. [13] For notes on the compilation of the table on Statistics of Employment in General, see January issue of *Review*, p. 94. For description of roman numerals, see foot of table on the following page. [14] Bureau of Labor Statistics. [15] Bureau of the Census. Indices up to 1939, based on estimates prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. [16] Including logging. [17] Including other categories of workers in the labour force. [18] May. [19] Estimates of beginning of June of each year between 1941 and 1944 adapted from census and other data. [20] Nov. [21] Figure of persons covered relates to the date shown as base, unless otherwise specified. [22] Jan. 39. [23] Jan. 49.

Indices of numbers employed (1937 = 100)

Date	America *(concl.)*		Asia	Europe						
	Peru	Puerto Rico	Palestine	Austria	Czechoslovakia	France	Germany			
							All zones	Brit. zone	Fr. zone [1]	U.S. zone
	III(B)	V	III (B)	III (B)	I	III (A)	a			
	A.M.I	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T. [2]	M.I.C.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.			
	W.	W.S. [4]	W.S.	W.S.	W.S. [4]	W.S.	W.S.			
1937	.	.	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	.	.	.
1938	.	.	100.0 [5]	.	.	102.7	.	.	.	.
1939	100.0	.	*85.8*	.	.	104.0 [6]	.	.	.	.
1940	*108.0*	.	*97.4*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1941	*105.4*	.	*110.0*	.	.	91.7	.	.	.	.
1942	*95.6*	.	*127.2*	.	.	93.2 [7]	.	.	.	.
1943	*90.4*	.	*139.9*	.	.	97.0 [8]	.	.	.	.
1944	*86.2*	.	*136.3*	.	.	92.1	.	.	.	.
1945	*77.8*	.	*135.8*	104.9	.	93.8	.	.	.	.
1946	*74.4*	100.0 [9]	*135.0*	99.4	104.1	100.3	100.0 [10]	100.0 [10]	100.0 [10]	100.0 [10]
1947	...	*104.6*	...	118.8	104.6	106.5	*103.2* [11]	*103.1*	*105.3*	*103.1*
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	.	*103.8*	...	124.9	106.8	.	*104.5* [11]	*105.2*	*109.0*	*108.8*
1948 : Jan.	.	*100.0*	...	123.4	103.7	...	.	.	*109.6*	.
Feb.	.	*106.7*	...	124.9	104.4	.	.	.	*110.1*	.
Mar.	.	*108.7*	...	125.3	104.2	.	...	*105.7*	*110.0*	*109.5*
April	.	*107.2*	...	126.5	106.1	...	.	.	*110.3*	.
May	.	*107.7*	...	128.3	107.9	.	.	.	...	.
June	.	*107.9*	...	129.6	108.1	.	...	*108.6*	*111.3*	*111.5* [7]
July	.	*106.2*	...	130.4	...	...	.	.	*111.6*	.
Aug.	.	*103.8*	...	...	...	.	.	.	*112.6*	.
Sept.	.	...	...	...	...	.	...	*108.4*	...	*111.1*
Oct.	.	...	...	...	...	...	.	.	...	.
Nov.	.	...	...	...	...	.	.	.	...	.
Dec.	.	...	...	...	...	.	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	212	585	54 [12]	266	3 164	6 800 [13]	19 602	6 597	1 100	4 528

Date	Europe *(concl.)*								Oceania	
	Hungary	Ireland	Luxembourg	Netherlands	Norway	Poland	U.S.S.R.	United [14] Kingdom	Australia	New Zealand
	I	I	III (A)	I	II [15]	I	III (A)	IV	IV	III (A)
	M.I.T.C. [6]	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C. [6]	M.I.T.C. [6]	A.M.I.T.C. [6]	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C. [6]	M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C. [16]	M.I.T.C.
	W.S.	W.S.	W.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S. [4]	W.S.	W.S.
1937	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	100	100.0 [17]	.	.
1938	.	100.2	101.7	104.3	100.0	.	103	98.3	.	.
1939	.	100.5	99.3	108.8	105.5	.	...	101.9	100.0 [18]	.
1940	.	97.8	.	107.3	102.7	.	113	98.9	.	.
1941	.	96.6	.	118.2	100.0	.	...	98.3	*112.3* [19]	.
1942	.	96.1	.	114.6	*102.3*	.	119	98.9	*111.1*	.
1943	.	95.9	.	109.6	*100.9*	.	...	96.4	*110.7*	.
1944	.	97.8	.	...	*97.6*	.	...	93.8	*110.5*	.
1945	.	100.5	.	...	*85.5* [20]	.	101	91.5	*110.8*	.
1946	83.4	106.7	88.2 [19]	117.9	*97.7*	100.0	111	97.5	*121.6*	.
1947	98.5	...	91.8	133.0	*104.7*	*118.6*	...	104.9	*131.4*	100.0 [13]
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*137.0*	...
1947 : Dec.	104.5	.	95.0	.	*103.7*	*122.7*	.	106.3	*134.6*	*104.6*
1948 : Jan.	101.9	.	95.7	.	*103.2*	*121.8*	.	106.3	*134.4*	*104.2*
Feb.	103.2	.	95.8	.	*104.8*	*122.7*	.	106.5	*134.1*	*105.1*
Mar.	104.7	.	95.4	.	*104.5*	*124.6*	.	106.4	*134.9*	*104.9*
April	105.9	.	98.0	.	...	*128.0*	.	106.8	*136.3*	*104.5*
May	...	.	99.1	.	...	*130.1*	.	106.9	*136.8*	...
June	...	.	100.0	.	...	*132.2*	.	107.2	*137.2*	...
July	...	.	101.3	.	...	*133.7*	.	107.2	*137.4*	...
Aug.	...	.	101.9	.	...	*134.3*	.	107.5	*137.6*	...
Sept.	...	.	103.6	.	...	...	.	107.9	*138 1*	...
Oct.	...	.	105.1	.	...	...	.	107.9	*138.4*	...
Nov.	...	.	...	.	...	...	.	108.0	*139.2*	...
Dec.	...	.	...	.	...	...	.	...	*139.7*	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	1 100	415	33	1 273	535 [21]	2 471	26 989	16 690	1 730	421

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments : III (A). All establishments of a given importance ; III (B). Representative sample of establishments ; III (A-B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. IV. Estimates. V. Labour force sample surveys. A. Agriculture. M. Mines. I. Industry (manufacturing industries and construction). T. Transports. C. Commerce. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Excluding the Saar. [2] Labour registration statistics. [3] Before 1943, Government undertakings preponderantly and manufacturing. [4] Including other categories of workers in the labour force. [5] Jan. [6] Jan.-Aug. [7] Jan.-June, Sept. and Dec. [8] Annual figures, commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944 : Mar. and Dec. ; and 1945 : Mar., June and Sept. [9] Mar. [10] Dec. [11] Figure for Dec. excludes the Saar territory. [12] Jan. 1943. [13] Jan. 1947. [14] Excluding Northern Ireland. [15] Before 1941, statistics of establishments. [16] Including forestry, fishing and trapping. [17] Annual figures : June. [18] July. [19] July-Dec. [20] Finnmark and evacuated communes in Troms excluded in 1945. [21] Average for 1941.

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING [1]

(a) *Indices of numbers employed* (1937 = 100)

Date	AFRICA		AMERICA				
	Union of South Africa		Canada	United States	Argentina	Chile	Colombia (Bogotá)
	Europeans	Total					
	III (A/B) [2]		III (A)	III (A/B)	III (B) [3]	III (B)	III (B)
	W.S.		W.S.	W.	W.	W.	W.
1937	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	.
1938	101.6	103.9	97.0	85.1	104.3	105.5	100.0 [4]
1939	101.1	104.3	98.2	94.5	108.5	108.1	*90.0*
1940	99.3	106.7	114.7	101.7	111.1	117.0	*80.3*
1941	102.2	117.0	147.2	124.9	117.0	127.6	*83.1*
1942	102.6	124.5	180.5	145.6	123.6	133.7	*96.7*
1943	102.2	129.1	197.7	168.0	126.1	127.0	*105.1*
1944	103.8	137.5	196.2	163.0	131.1	125.6	*135.8*
1945	106.7	138.6	178.0	143.5	132.5	126.9	*142.6*
1946	112.8	142.5	162.8	135.5	136.9	134.8	*153.8*
1947	118.0	148.0	174.0	148.7	146.9	141.6	...
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	117.9	149.2	174.7	153.0	149.3	142.7	.
1948 : Jan.	118.7	149.0	175.4	151.7	147.8	119.7	.
Feb.	121.3	154.5	177.1	150.8	147.4	140.8	.
Mar.	121.8	155.7	176.6	151.5	148.7	142.2	.
April	122.1	154.5	176.4	147.6	147.5	145.0	.
May	122.7	155.4	178.0	147.0	...	140.4	.
June	122.9	156.1	181.1	149.5	...	135.3	.
July	122.8	156.1	180.5	149.9	...	...	.
Aug.	122.7	156.1	183.1	152.8	...	...	.
Sept.	123.8	157.3	183.6	155.5	...	...	.
Oct.	125.1	158.7	...	154.2	...	...	.
Nov.	...	...	...	152.4	...	...	.
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	108	270	1 046 [5]	.../8 666	.	18	4

Date	AMERICA *(concl.)*				ASIA		
	Dominican Republic	Mexico		Uruguay	India (British)	Japan	Palestine
	III (A)	III (B)		III (B)	III (A)	III (A B)	III (B)
	W.S.	W.S.	W.	W.	W.	W.	W. [6]
1937	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	100.0	100.0	.
1938	107.0	100.7	101.2	*100.4* [7]	103.7	110.1	100.0 [8]
1939	111.8	100.1	111.6	*111.9*	104.5	121.1	*82.3*
1940	120.0	102.0	115.5	*115.6*	110.1	124.8	*98.6*
1941	114.6	107.2	119.3	*120.6*	128.7	128 0	*115.1*
1942	123.5	113.3	126.6	*124.3*	136.2	141.8	*136.1*
1943	130.5	115.6	129.4	*129.6*	145.4	160.7	100.0 [9]
1944	139.3	119.7	133.9	*135.8*	150.5	181.1	*104.3*
1945	131.4	120.1	133.8	*137.5*	157.7	.	*108.8*
1946	...	123.6	139.2	*145.6*	147.0	.	*102.8*
1947	...	119.8	136.9	*149.7*	...	100.0 [9]	...
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	.	.	135.9	...	.	*99.0*	...
1948 : Jan.	.	.	...	.	.	*89.4*	...
Feb.	.	.	...	.	.	*92.6*	...
Mar.	.	.	...	...	.	*92.2*	...
April	.	.	...	.	.	*91.3*	...
May	.	.	...	.	.	*92.4*	...
June	.	.	...	...	.	*90.1*	...
July	.	.	...	.	.	*90.5*	...
Aug.	.	.	...	.	.	*91.1*	...
Sept.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...
Oct.	.	.	...	.	.	...	...
Nov.	.	.	...	.	.	...	...
Dec.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	32	113	105	56	1 676	5 760 [9]	32 [10]

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments: III (A). All establishments of a given importance; III (B). Representative sample of establishments; III (A B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. IV. Estimates. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] For notes on the compilation of this table, see Jan. issue of *Review*, p. 94. [2] Including building. [3] Including mining. [4] May. [5] Average for 1947. [6] Since Jan. 1943, including salaried employees. [7] 1936 = 100. [8] Jan. [9] Oct. 1947 = 100; indices based on a monthly sample survey covering wage earners, salaried employees and other categories of workers in the labour force. [10] Jan. 1943.

(a) *Indices of numbers employed* (1937 = 100) *(concl.)*

Date	Europe							
	Czecho-slovakia	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany		Hungary	Ireland
					British zone	U.S. zone		
	III (A)	III (A)	III (B)	III (A)	[1]		I	III (A/B) [2]
	W.S.	W.	W.	W.S.			W.	W.S.
1937	100.0 [3]	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	.	100.0	100.0
1938	.	100.2	102.9	103.2 [4]	.	.	108.0	100.1
1939	.	109.4	93.6	105.4	.	.	119.1	101.4
1940	.	101.6	78.7	.	.	.	124.5	100.0
1941	.	104.2	100.0 [5]	90.3	.	.	133.8	96.3
1942	.	111.0	*95.7*	96.0 [6]	.	.	.	92.6
1943	.	115.9	*96.1*	90 9 [7]	.	.	.	93.3
1944	.	116.8	*90.9*	90.9	.	.	.	95.5
1945	.	108.7	*108.2*	90.4	.	.	.	101.5
1946	85.5	121.5	*114.3*	96.8	100.0 [8]	100.0 [8]	*94.3* [9]	110.3
1947	93.8	128.0	*122.6*	106.0	*103.5*	*106.8*	100.0 [10]	117.7
1948	...	...	*129.2*	...	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	106.9	.	.	.	*106.7*	*112.9*	*116.0*	.
1948 : Jan.	99.2	.	*126.9*	...	.	.	*112.9*	.
Feb.	99.1	.	.	.	.	.	*113.1*	.
Mar.	98.7	.	.	.	*108.6*	*116.3*	*113.6*	123.4
April	98.9	.	*130.6*	...	.	.	*114.8*	.
May	98.9	.	.	.	.	.	*114.5*	.
June	99.3	.	.	.	...	...	*113.8*	.
July	100.1	.	*130.1*	...	.	.	*114.9*	.
Aug.	100.5	.	.	.	.	.	*119.3*	.
Sept.	105.2	.	.	.	...	...	*125.7*	...
Oct.	...	.	*129.2*	...	.	.	*128.4*	.
Nov.	...	.	.	.	.	.	*129.5*	.
Dec.	...	.	.	.	...	...	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	1 205	167	74 [11]	2 200 [10]	2 042	1 585	631 [12]/279 [10]	100

Date	Europe *(concl.)*						Oceania	
	Netherlands		Norway	Sweden	Switzerland	United [13] Kingdom	Australia	New Zealand
	I	III (B)	II [14]	III (A/B) [2]	III (B)	IV	III (A/B)	III (A)
	W.S.	W.	W.S. [2]	W.	W. [15]	W.S. [16]	W.S.	W.
1937	100.0	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0 [17]	100.0	100.0
1938	103.2	.	97.3	101.3	99.7	95.0	104.5	99.7
1939	109.3	.	100.2	105.2	98.3	101.7	105.7	105.8
1940	107.0	.	95.5	103.5	102.8	106.4	113.7	111.6
1941	113.2	.	100.0	102.7	107.9	110.4	129.5	116.3
1942	108.8	.	*102.4*	108.4	109.6	115.7	139.0	113.5
1943	98.3	.	*103.2*	111.7	104.9	115.6	144.0	116.7
1944	.	.	*101.2*	113.0	99.7	110.9	141.9	121.0
1945	.	*64.2* [18]	*93.5*	119.4	109.6	101.8	137.5	124.9
1946	113.1	*85.3*	*110.6*	123.9	122.9	98.3	145.0	130.4
1947	134.1	100.0	*124.1*	124.0	133.0	106.0	152.7	...
1948	...	...	...	...	...	...	157.9	...
1947 : Dec.	.	*105.2*	*126.9*	124.0	135.6	108.2	155.0	.
1948 : Jan.	.	.	*128.0*	123.4	.	108.6	155.1	.
Feb.	.	.	*130.7*	124.5	.	108.7	1 5.0	.
Mar.	.	*108.8*	*130.6*	124.7	135.6	108.5	155.2	.
April	.	.	...	125.3	.	108.5	157.5	.
May	.	.	...	124.8	.	108.3	157.9	.
June	.	*110.5*	...	.	135.6	108.2	158.6	.
July	.	.	...	123.9	.	108.1	158.7	.
Aug.	.	.	...	...	.	108.7	158.9	.
Sept.	.	...	...	...	135.6	109.1	159.3	.
Oct.	.	.	...	...	.	109.6	159.4	.
Nov.	.	.	...	...	.	109.9	160.1	.
Dec.	.	...	...	...	...	...	159.3	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	625	335	184 [11]	536	342 [19]	6 700	519	85

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments : III (A). All establishments of a given importance ; III (B). Representative sample of establishments ; III (A/B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. IV. Estimates. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Labour registration statistics. [2] Including mining. [3] 31 Dec. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] Commencing 1941, the figures relate to an increased number of establishments. [6] Jan.-June, Sept. and Dec. [7] Annual figures, commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944 : Mar. and Dec., and 1945 : Mar., June and Sept. [8] Dec. [9] Since Jan. 1946, statistics of establishments, type B. [10] Jan. 1947. [11] Average for 1941. [12] Average for 1937. [13] Excluding Northern Ireland. [14] Before 1941, statistics of establishments. [15] Including building. [16] Including employers and workers on own account. [17] Annual figures : June. [18] July-Dec. [19] Average for 1947.

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING *(concl.)*

(b) *Indices of total hours worked* (1937 = 100)

Date	America		Asia		Europe	
	United States [1]	Argentina	Japan [1]	Palestine	Czecho-slovakia	Denmark
	III (A/B)	III (B) [2]	III (A/B)	III (B) [3]	III (A)	III (B)
	W.	W.	W.	W.	W.	W.
1937	**100.0**	.	**100.0**	.	.	**100.0**
1938	78.5	.	110.4	.	.	99.4
1939	92.3	.	120.3 [4]	**100**	.	107.7
1940	100.4	.	.	*111*	.	93.8
1941	131.4	.	133.0	*142*	.	94.2
1942	161.8	.	148.3	*183*	.	101.5
1943	195.4	**100.0**	169.2	*220*	.	106.5
1944	190.9	*103.4*	198.8	*211*	.	107.7
1945	161.3	*99.1*	.	*210*	.	94.3
1946	141.9	*99.8*	.	*198*	**100.0** [5]	115.0
1947	155.2	*106.7*	.	...	*116.2*	125.0[r]
1948	...	...	.	...	...	135.0*
1947 : Dec.	163.3	*102.1*	.	...	*121.8*	137.0
1948 : Jan.	159.1	*97.1*	.	...	*122.9*	128.5
Feb.	157.0	*91.8*	.	...	*119.2*	130.9
Mar.	158.6	*108.3*	.	...	*128.5*	132.6
April	153.4	*110.6*	.	...	*124.3*	135.3
May	152.0	...	.	...	*117.3*	137.5
June	155.6	...	.	...	*119.9*	138.8
July	154.5	...	.	...	...	135.9
Aug.	158.8	...	.	...	...	135.7
Sept.	160.3	...	.	...	...	139.1
Oct.	159 4	...	.	...	...	141.5
Nov.	157.1	...	.	...	...	140 7
Dec.	...	...	.	...	...	140.6
Persons cov. (thousands)	.../8 666	.	.	7	847	.

Date	Europe *(concl.)*					
	Finland	France	Hungary	Ireland [6]	Norway	Sweden
	III (B)	III (A)	III (B)	III (A) [2]	III (A)[3]	III (A)[3]
	W.	W.S.	W.	W.	W.	W.
1937	**100.0**	**100.0**	.	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
1938	104.9	100.0	.	99.3	98.1	99.7
1939	93.7	105.9	.	**101.1**	100.8	104.1
1940	78.3	.	.	99.8	92.9	99.2
1941	**100.0** [7]	86.5	.	93.6	99.1	98.0
1942	*97.7*	97.5	.	88.3	97.6	104.3
1943	*99.4*	102.0 [8]	.	90.5	96.6	107.9
1944	*93.9*	97.5	.	94.0	91.6	110.0
1945	*110.1*	96 9	.	103.6	85.7	108.7 [9]
1946	*114.5*	106.7	*84.3*	115.0	...	...
1947	*123.1*	119.6	**100.0** [6]	...	...	...
1948	*131.5*	...	...	...	...	...
1947 : Dec.	.	.	*103.5*	.	.	.
1948 : Jan.	*131.1*	122.2	*108.4*	.	.	.
Feb.	.	.	*101.5*	.	.	.
Mar.	.	.	*100.1*	.	.	.
April	*133.7*	...	*108.4*	.	.	.
May	.	.	*99.1*	.	.	.
June	.	.	*98.5*	.	.	.
July	*129.7*	...	*101.5*	.	.	.
Aug.	.	.	*106.5*	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	*115.3*	.	.	.
Oct.	*131.6*	...	...	.	.	.
Nov.	.	.	...	.	.	.
Dec.	.	.	...	.	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	74 [10]	...	279	100	144	536

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments: III (A). All establishments of a given importance; III (B). Representative sample of establishments; III (A/B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series IV. Estimates. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Calculated by the I.L.O. by multiplying the index of numbers employed by the index of hours worked per worker. [2] Including mining. [3] Total number of days worked. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] Jan. [6] Week in Oct. of each year. [7] Commencing 1941, the figures relate to an increased number of establishments. [8] Annual figures commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944: Mar. and Dec.; and 1945: Mar., June and Sept. [9] Figure for 1945 affected by strikes in the engineering industry. [10] Average for 1941.

Cost of Living and Food Prices

(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	AFRICA						AMERICA		
	Egypt	French Equatorial Africa	Northern Rhodesia	Southern Rhodesia	Sudan	Union of South Africa	Canada	Newfoundland	United States
Town or no. of localities	Cairo	Brazzaville[1]	Whole country	5	Omdurman[2]	9	64-11	St. John's	56-34
Original base (=100)	June-Aug. 1939	Oct. 1938	Aug. 1939	Aug. 1939	1938	1938	1935-1939	Oct. 1938	1935-1939
Cost of living									
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-d*	*a, b, d*[3]	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	.	.	.	**100**	.	**100**	**100**	.	**100**
1938	.	**100**[4]	.	101	**100**	104	101	**100**[4]	98
1939	**100**	.	**100**[5]	100	*100*	104	100	*104*[4]	97
1940	*113*	.	.	101	*110*	107	104	.	98
1941	*138*	.	.	105	*130*	112	110	*125*[6]	102
1942	*184*	.	.	111	*151*	122	116	*140*	113
1943	*242*	.	*119*[6]	117	*173*	129	117	*149*	120
1944	*279*	.	*123*	122	*172*[7]	133	117	*161*	122
1945	*293*	*307*	*126*	124	*164*	137	118	*160*	125
1946	*287*	*377*	*129*	129	*177*	139	122	*163*	136
1947	*279*	*518*	*138*	132	*215*	145	134	*172*	155
1948	...	*740*	...	141	...	153	153	*184*	...
1947: Dec.	*280*	.	*139*	137	*229*	146	144	*180*	163
1948: Jan.	*281*	*598*[8]	*140*	137	*237*	147	147	*182*	164
Feb.	*281*	.	*140*	138	*246*	148	148	*182*	163
Mar.	*283*	.	*140*	139	*248*	150	149	*184*	163
April	*282*	*703*	*141*	140	*253*	150	150	*185*	165
May	*281*	.	*141*	142	*265*	152	151	*183*	166
June	...	.	*142*	142	*289*	154	152	*182*	167
July	...	*792*[8]	...	142	...	156	155	*184*	169
Aug.	...	.	...	142	...	155	156	*190*	170
Sept.	...	.	...	143	...	157	157	*185*	170
Oct.	...	*866*	...	143	...	157	158	*186*	169
Nov.	...	.	...	143	...	157	158	*185*	168
Dec.	...	.	...	144	...	156	157	...	...
Food									
1937	.	.	.	.	.	**100**	**100**	.	**100**
1938	.	**100**[4]	.	.	**100**	105	101	**100**[4]	93
1939	**100**	.	**100**[5]	**100**[9]	*103*	104	97	*109*[4]	90
1940	*112*	.	.	.	*111*	107	102	.	92
1941	*141*	.	.	*110*	*130*	115	112	*138*[6]	100
1942	*194*	.	.	*116*	*138*	127	123	*163*	118
1943	*263*	.	*120*[6]	*120*	*139*	138	127	*174*	131
1944	*312*	.	*126*	*123*	*144*	144	127	*180*	129
1945	*325*	*310*[4]	*135*	*127*	*156*	147	129	*184*	132
1946	*310*	*381*	*140*	*132*	*181*	151	136	*190*	152
1947	*298*	*524*	*151*	*144*	*229*	159	155	*203*	184
1948	...	*760*	...	*163*	...	164	189	*221*	...
1947: Dec.	*298*	.	*154*	*159*	*243*	161	173	*216*	196
1948: Jan.	*301*	*620*	*155*	*158*	*254*	162	177	*217*	199
Feb.	*299*	.	*155*	*162*	*267*	163	180	*218*	194
Mar.	*302*	.	*155*	*163*	*271*	165	180	*222*	192
April	*299*	*728*	*158*	*165*	*278*	165	181	*223*	197
May	*298*	.	*159*	*169*	*294*	167	185	*219*	200
June	...	.	*161*	*166*	*290*	169	188	*216*	203
July	...	*800*[8]	...	*162*	...	162	195	*218*	206
Aug.	...	.	...	*157*	...	161	196	*232*	206
Sept.	...	.	...	*161*	...	166	198	*221*	204
Oct.	...	*893*	...	*162*	...	167	199	*221*	201
Nov.	...	.	...	*164*	...	165	198	*220*	197
Dec.	...	.	...	*167*	...	161	196	*221*	...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Europeans. [2] Natives. [3] Since July 1941, *a-e*. [4] Oct. [5] Aug. [6] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [7] As from Jan. 1944, the index is calculated on a slightly different basis. [8] Including heating and soap. [9] Up to June 1941, including heating and lighting.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	America *(cont.)*									
	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil		British Guiana	British Honduras	British West Indies			
Town or no. of localities	Buenos Aires	La Paz	Rio de Janeiro	São Paulo	Georgetown	Belize	Barbados	Jamaica (Kingston)	St. Vincent	Trinidad
Original base (=100)	1943	Dec. 1936	1928-1929	1939	Mar.-Dec. 1938	Sept. 1939	Sept. 1939	Aug. 1939	Aug. 1939	1935
Cost of living										
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	100	100	100	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1938	99	131	104	.	100[1]	.	.	.	.	98[2]
1939	101	162	107	100	.	100[3]	100[3]	100[4]	100[4]	100[5]
1940	103	217	111	*105*	.	.	*120*	*120*	.	*114*
1941	106	278	124	*117*	.	.	*130*	*135*	.	*124*
1942	112	361	139	*130*	*160*[6]	*135*[4]	*151*	*152*	*166*[7]	*141*
1943	113	441	154	*150*	*163*[8]	*151*	*165*	*157*	*179*	*163*
1944	113	470	170	*191*	*160*	*155*	*178*	*159*	*184*	*172*
1945	135	496	197	*232*	*159*	*166*	*187*	*159*	*188*	*173*
1946	159	533	222	*276*	*174*	*169*	*207*	*165*	*194*	*181*
1947	180	642	284	*328*	*186*	*206*	*226*	*195*	*208*	*196*
1947: Dec.	191	696	284	*330*	*191*	.	*226*	*206*	*214*	*199*
1948: Jan.	189	701	284	*355*	*196*	*206*	*226*	*207*	*222*	*200*
Feb.	188	706	285	*356*	*194*	.	*227*	*211*	*223*	*200*
Mar.	191	709	287	*359*	*193*	.	*227*	*215*	*225*	*200*
April	...	713	292	*365*	*193*	*211*	*228*	*215*	*225*	*200*
May	...	715	292	*364*	*194*	.	*231*	*218*	*224*	*200*
June	...	716	...	*373*	*195*	.	*231*	*246*	*224*	*201*
July	...	...	...	*373*	*198*	*210*	...	*250*	*226*	*201*
Aug.	...	...	...	*369*	*199*	.	...	*252*	*227*	*201*
Sept.	...	...	...	...	*201*	.	...	*249*	*221*	...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	*200*	*209*	...	*253*	*220*	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	*201*	.	...	*252*	*221*	...
Dec.	...	...	...	...	*197*	.	...	...	*221*	...
Food										
1937	100	100	100	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1938	95	124	100	.	100[1]	.	.	.	.	99[2]
1939	96	142	102	100	.	100[3]	100[3]	100[4]	100[4]	100[5]
1940	97	176	108	*107*	.	.	*124*	*124*	.	*116*
1941	101	248	116	*121*	.	.	*132*	*133*	.	*123*
1942	110	316	131	*134*	*170*[6]	*136*[4]	*152*	*144*	...	*146*
1943	112	360	152	*153*	*164*[8]	*156*	*162*	*144*	...	*173*
1944	116	405	175	*201*	*154*	*161*	*164*	*139*	*172*	*185*
1945	133	424	209	*245*	*156*	*173*	*165*	*143*	*175*	*187*
1946	161	472	240	*312*	*176*	*176*	*176*	*154*	*182*	*202*
1947	185	623	278	*373*	*185*	*216*	*213*	*177*	*193*	*227*
1947: Dec.	198	667	280	*368*	*196*	.	*223*	*182*	*198*	*233*
1948: Jan.	190	668	...	*411*	*198*	*219*	*223*	*185*	*210*	*234*
Feb.	193	676	...	*413*	*198*	.	*223*	*191*	*210*	*234*
Mar.	...	682	...	*425*	*198*	.	*225*	*193*	*213*	*234*
April	...	689	...	*435*	*198*	*225*	*225*	*193*	*213*	*234*
May	...	690	...	*434*	*198*	.	*225*	*193*	*213*	*234*
June	...	688	...	*448*	*198*	.	*225*	*246*	*214*	*236*
July	...	...	...	*449*	*201*	*219*	...	*246*	*214*	*236*
Aug.	...	...	...	*442*	*202*	.	...	*246*	*214*	*236*
Sept.	...	...	...	...	*201*	.	...	*241*	*205*	...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	*200*	*220*	...	*247*	*205*	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	*201*	.	...	*243*	*205*	...
Dec.	...	...	...	...	*201*	.	...	...	*206*	...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Mar.-Dec. [2] Jan. [3] Sept. [4] Aug. [5] Aug.-Dec. 1939 = 100. [6] June-Nov. [7] Sept.-Dec. [8] Apr.-Dec.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	AMERICA *(cont.)*									
	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dominican Republic	Guatemala	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru
Town or no. of localities	Santiago	Bogotá	San José	Trujillo City	Guatemala	Mexico City	Managua	Panama	Asunción	Lima
Original base (=100)	Mar. 1928	Feb. 1937	1936	Nov. 1941	1937	1939	1939	Oct. 1939-June 1940	1938	1934-36
Cost of living										
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a*	*a-c*	*a*	*a*	*a-c, e*	*a-e*
1937	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	.	**100**	.	.	.	**100**
1938	104	113	101	.	.	114	.	.	**100**	101
1939	106	118	101	.	.	116	.	.	*109*	100
1940	119	114	99	.	.	117	.	.	*113*	107
1941	137	112	102	**100**[1]	.	121	.	.	*128*	117
1942	173	122	123	*120*	.	140	.	.	*144*	131
1943	201	141	158	*150*	.	183	.	.	*176*	143
1944	224	170	167	*174*	.	230	.	.	*193*	164
1945	244	189	177	*181*	.	247	.	.	*214*	182
1946	283	207	184	*202*	.	308	.	.	*236*	199
1947	378	245	210	*227*	.	348	.	.	*309*	258
1947 : Dec.	403	253	212	*219*	.	353	.	.	*319*	311
1948 : Jan.	407	260	215	*226*	.	355	.	.	*332*	326
Feb.	416	265	215	*231*	.	361	.	.	*332*	328
Mar.	425	282	214	*226*	.	362	.	.	*385*	331
April	432	.	214	*227*	.	363	.	.	*386*	331
May	433	285	212	*228*	.	364	.	.	*407*	332
June	437	291	214	*225*	.	364	.	.	*407*	334
July	447	293	...	*228*	.	373	.	.	*409*	336
Aug.	...	291	...	*225*	.	379	.	.	...	341
Sept.	...	...	...	*232*	.	376	.	.	...	342
Oct.	...	...	...	*233*	.	377	.	.	...	346
Nov.	...	...	...	...	.	379	.	.	...	349
Dec.	...	...	...	...	.	377	.	.	...	353
Food										
1937	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	**100**	**100**	**100**	.	.	**100**
1938	105	114	99	.	.	115	151	.	**100**	98
1939	103	121	96	.	92	115	224	.	*106*	92
1940	120	115	91	.	91	112	274	**100**	*108*	101
1941	137	111	95	**100**[1]	87	115	269	.	*125*	115
1942	179	123	119	*117*	.	131	363	*153*	*137*	129
1943	212	145	149	*142*	111	168	478	*156*	*157*	143
1944	227	184	160	*175*	130	217	813	*159*	*172*	163
1945	242	207	181	*183*	163	234	954	*162*	*188*	182
1946	281	222	187	*210*	193	303	772	*175*	*223*	196
1947	377	266	219	*253*	196	348	834	*194*	*281*	271
1947 : Dec.	401	271	220	*236*	198	355	832	*196*	*286*	353
1948 : Jan.	407	276	223	*250*	202	356	859	*191*	*306*	355
Feb.	412	283	224	*254*	208	359	873	*193*	*306*	357
Mar.	418	309	223	*246*	210	359	819	*192*	*337*	358
April	422	.	223	*244*	208	360	...	*193*	*337*	358
May	422	310	222	*246*	216	361	...	*195*	*334*	358
June	430	319	223	*242*	215	361	...	*206*	*334*	359
July	445	320	...	*247*	218	373	...	*206*	*343*	360
Aug.	...	...	...	*236*	...	377	...	*203*	...	363
Sept.	...	...	...	*233*	...	373	...	*203*	...	365
Oct.	...	...	...	*230*	...	373	...	*202*	...	372
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	375	...	*201*	...	377
Dec.	...	...	...	...	...	373	...	*198*	...	382

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Nov.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	America *(concl.)*			Asia						
	Puerto Rico	Uruguay	Venezuela	Burma	Ceylon	China		Cyprus	India	
Town or no. of localities	6	Montevideo	Caracas	Rangoon	Colombo	Chungking	Shanghai	5	Ahmedabad	Bombay
Original base (= 100)	Mar. 1941	1929	1933	1931	Nov. 1942	Jan.-June 1937		Aug. 1939	Aug. 1926-July 1927	July 1933-June 1934
Cost of living										
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e* [1]	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	.	100	.	100	.	100	100	.	100	100
1938	.	99	.	99	.	115	129	.	93	100
1939	.	105	.	97	*59*[2]	189	172	100[3]	96	100
1940	.	110	.	107	*61*	542	360[4]	.	104	106
1941	100[5]	109	.	122	*67*	1 814	.	.	114	117
1942	*135*[6]	112	.	.	100[7]	4 078	.	*220*	150	148
1943	*140*	118	.	.	*107*	11 339	.	*254*	271	218
1944	*143*	121	.	.	*109*	38 554	.	*235*	278	224
1945	*146*	139	.	.	*121*	141 821	24 978	*232*	261	222
1946	*159*	153	.	381[8 9]	*125*	255 041	337 601	*245*	275	244
1947	*180*	177	.	388	*137*	1 565 385	3 078 307	*269*[4]	289	263
1948	...	...	.	360	*142*	.	.	*337*[4]	...	286
1947 : Dec.	*183*	178	.	371	*137*	4 347 000	7 444 000	.	287	269
1948 : Jan.	*183*	180	.	356	*137*	5 932 000	11 293 000	.	279	256
Feb.	*182*	177	.	344	*142*	7 651 000	16 308 000	*330*	282	260
Mar.	*180*	177	.	340	*142*	12 816 000	18 806 000	*327*	286	268
April	*180*	176	.	338	*144*	15 691 000	20 931 000	*327*	297	275
May	*179*	175	.	344	*143*	20 315 000	29 970 000	*332*	314	275
June	*178*	174	.	359	*143*	41 266 000	57 447 000	*333*	322	290
July	*179*	177	.	361	*144*	128 302 000	159 022 000	*344*	330	294
Aug.	*180*	177	.	378	*143*	100 [11]	100 [11]	*336*	341	303
Sept.	*178*	178	.	391	*143*	*228*	*107*	*334*	342	305
Oct.	*175*	...	.	378	*142*	*389*	*128*	*345*	347	297
Nov.	...	...	.	367	*142*	*1 335*	*1 903*	*347*	350	299
Dec.	...	...	.	368	*144*	*2 225*	*2 145*	*343*	...	308
Food										
1937	.	100	100 [10]	100	.	100	100	.	100	100
1938	.	96	102	97	.	103	110	.	91	99
1939	.	102	107	95	*54*[2]	139	158	100[3]	96	100
1940	.	107	102	111	*56*	480	372[4]	.	107	110
1941	100[5]	107	101	132	*62*	2 067	.	.	116	123
1942	*148*[6]	111	111	.	100[7]	4 084	.	*224*	164	158
1943	*149*	118	122	.	*103*	11 400	.	*208*	315	221
1944	*153*	122	141	.	*102*	41 696	.	*220*	316	231
1945	*157*	146	141	.	*111*	134 042	25 560	*222*	294	238
1946	*179*	163	150	549[8]	*113*	247 682	338 894	*245*	327	278
1947	*213*	202	172	463	*126*	1 395 400	2 950 499	*264*[4]	349	302
1948	...	...	...	403	*138*	.	.	*320*[4]	...	305
1947 : Dec.	*218*	204	185	442	*127*	3 758 000	6 878 000	.	345	308
1948 : Jan.	*218*	206	...	402	*127*	5 730 000	11 162 000	.	325	282
Feb.	*218*	201	...	364	*134*	7 937 000	16 088 000	*315*	301	283
Mar.	*214*	201	...	349	*134*	13 138 000	21 406 000	*304*	304	286
April	*213*	198	...	365	*136*	15 453 000	23 599 000	*306*	337	289
May	*212*	197	...	380	*138*	19 601 000	33 539 000	*319*	349	288
June	*210*	191	...	406	*137*	40 821 000	62 657 000	*321*	361	309
July	*212*	193	...	415	*139*	125 819 000	168 739 000	*323*	376	308
Aug.	*213*	194	...	440	*139*	100 [11]	100 [11]	*312*	385	320
Sept.	*210*	195	...	451	*139*	*271*	*105*	*326*	390	325
Oct.	*205*	...	...	431	*141*	*419*	*130*	*330*	400	318
Nov.	...	...	...	414	*141*	*1 417*	*2 077*	*335*	404	318
Dec.	...	...	...	413	*146*	*2 080*	*2 079*	*330*	...	335

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food ; *b* = Fuel and light ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Until Feb. 1947, excluding heating and lighting. [2] Aug.-Dec. [3] Aug. [4] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [5] Mar. [6] June and Dec. [7] Nov. [8] New series with base 1941 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [9] Sept.-Dec. [10] Including soap and coal. [11] Aug. 19, 1948 = 100.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Asia *(cont.)*						
	Indo-China	Indonesia		Iran	Iraq	Japan	Lebanon
Town or no. of localities	Saigon	Batavia	Makassar	7	Baghdad	28	Beirut
Original base (=100)	1925	July 1938	July 1938	21 Mar. 1936-20 Mar. 1937	1939	Aug. 1946-Mar. 1947	June-Aug. 1939
Cost of living							
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a*	*a*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	100	.	.	100	.	.	.
1938	114	.	.	114	.	.	.
1939	117	.	.	121	100	.	100 [1]
1940	136	.	.	134	.	.	*110* [1]
1941	149	.	.	184	.	.	.
1942	191	.	.	326	.	.	*287*
1943	251	.	.	787	.	.	*441*
1944	384	.	.	916	.	.	*560*
1945	.	.	.	779	*584*	.	*607*
1946	1 825 [3] [4]	.	.	698	*567*	100 [5]	*553*
1947	2 921	.	.	707	*601*	*191*	*500*
1947: Dec.	3 264	.	.	739	*715*	*282*	*501*
1948: Jan.	3 364	.	.	747	*721*	*286*	*496*
Feb.	3 457	.	.	752	*716*	*302*	*507*
Mar.	3 549	.	.	749	...	*310*	*505*
April	3 614	.	.	779	...	*322*	*504*
May	3 934	.	.	796	...	*329*	*491*
June	3 834	.	.	775	...	*344*	*491*
July	3 955	.	.	762	...	*395*	*489*
Aug.	4 060[r]	.	.	755	...	*420*	*485*
Sept.	4 096	.	.	...	...	*418*	...
Oct.	4 210	.	.	...	...	...	...
Nov.	...	.	.	...	...	...	*488*
Dec.	...	.	.	...	...	...	*486*
Food							
1937	100	.	.	100	.	.	.
1938	125	100 [6]	100 [6]	112	.	.	.
1939	125	.	.	114	100	.	100 [1]
1940	147	.	.	125	.	.	*114* [1]
1941	149	.	.	187	.	.	.
1942	170	.	.	346	.	.	*435*
1943	210	.	.	872	.	.	*612*
1944	311	.	.	928	.	.	*663*
1945	.	.	.	774	*719*	.	*732*
1946	1 933 [3] [4]	.	.	696	*628*	100 [5]	*662*
1947	3 269	*2 351*	*1 682*	703	*689*	*182*	*604*
1947: Dec.	3 723	*2 067*	*1 497*	715	*855*	*255*	*628*
1948: Jan.	3 882	*1 940*	*1 504*	730	...	*255*	*615*
Feb.	3 946	*1 660*	*1 403*	747	...	*284*	*644*
Mar.	3 978	*1 391*	*1 358*[r]	747	...	*290*	*658*
April	4 041	*1 256*	*1 269*[r]	807	...	*294*	*655*
May	4 360	*1 141*[r]	*1 296*	828	...	*305*	*620*
June	4 328	*1 115*	*1 129*[r]	783	...	*306*	*620*
July	4 392	*1 145*	*1 101*[r]	756	...	*352*	*614*
Aug.	4 583	*1 136*	*1 036*	...	...	*365*	*603*
Sept.	4 614	*1 032*	*1 061*	...	...	*352*	...
Oct.	4 724	*1 135*	*1 060*	...	...	...	...
Nov.	...	*1 240*	*1 109*	...	...	...	*636*
Dec.	...	*1 531*	*1 175*	...	...	...	*630*

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] June-Aug. [2] Jan. [3] New series with base Jan.-June 1939 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [4] Mar.-Dec. [5] Aug. 1946-Mar. 1947. [6] July: index of the free market retail prices of 19 foodstuffs, based on the consumption in 1932 of an Indonesian family with a monthly income of fl.25-fl.50.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Asia *(concl.)*	Europe						
	Philippines	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Czechoslovakia	Denmark	Finland	France
Town or no. of localities	Manila	Vienna	62	12 [3]	Prague	200	32	45 dep.
Original base (=100)	1941	April 1945	1936-1938	1939	July 1914	1935	1935	1930
Cost of living								
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a, b, d, e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a*
1937	100	.	100	100	100	100	100	.
1938	104	100 [4]	104	103	105	102	103	.
1939	105	.	105	106	115	104	105	.
1940	110	.	116 [5]	118	141	130	125	.
1941	112	.	.	143	165	150	148	.
1942	180	.	.	189	179	156	174	.
1943	435	.	.	240	177	158	197	.
1944	150 751	*85* [4]	.	359	178	160	209	.
1945	777	*85* [4]	.	540	188	162	292	.
1946	585	*107* [6]	333	607	341	161	467	.
1947	434	*211*	339	675	326	165	606	.
1948	...	...	389	...	322	...	...	.
1947: Dec.	417	*303*	360	710	319	.	748	.
1948: Jan.	439	*306*	362	...	321	167	791	.
Feb.	413	*306*	383	...	321	.	781	.
Mar.	392	*312*	389	...	324	.	790	.
April	399	*310*	392	...	325	168	793	.
May	392	*307*	394	...	325	.	793	.
June	397	*306*	393	...	328	.	802	.
July	...	*303*	392	...	324	170	839	.
Aug.	...	*303* [7]	396	...	316	.	847	.
Sept.	...	*301*	390	...	315	.	843	.
Oct.	...	...	392	...	320	170	840	.
Nov.	...	...	390	...	323	.	834	.
Dec.	...	...	391	...	325	.	...	.
Food								
1937	100	.	.	100	100	100	100	100
1938	104	100 [4]	.	108	103	104	101	115
1939	107	.	.	110	114	106	105	124 [7]
1940	112	.	.	124	137	129	128	155
1941	113	.	.	156	151	157	151	186
1942	213	.	.	219	155	162	177	217
1943	563	.	.	294	154	161	197	266
1944	255 459	*84* [4]	.	464	155	162	200	338
1945	945	*85* [4]	.	703	160	163	312	465
1946	727	*108* [6]	.	798	342	163	491	830
1947	470	*204*	*305* [8]	908	317	170	719	1 333
1948	...	...	*384*	...	316	...	...	...
1947: Dec.	448	*292*	*347*	947	316	.	929	.
1948: Jan.	485	*294*	*347*	...	321	172	969	.
Feb.	444	*294*	*350*	...	320	.	934	1 982
Mar.	409	*306*	*383*	...	321	.	925	.
April	424	*301*	*387*	...	324	171	911	.
May	408	*300*	*389*	...	324	.	900	2 001
June	419	*303*	*387*	...	331	.	912	.
July	424	*298*	*386*	...	321	174	919	.
Aug.	...	*298*	*393*	...	306	.	928	2 092
Sept.	...	*295*	*399*	...	304	.	914	.
Oct.	...	...	*387*	...	301	173	1 050	.
Nov.	...	...	*386*	...	307	.	1 026	...
Dec.	...	...	*387*	...	309	.	...	.

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] The monetary equivalence used formerly of 1 RM. (1938) = 1 Sch. (1948) has been replaced by 1 Sch. (1938) = 1 Sch. (1948). [2] Retail price index. [3] Including Sofia. [4] Apr.; official prices; index based on normal consumption of family consisting of man, wife and 2 children. [5] Jan.-Apr. [6] Apr.-Dec. [7] New index (base 1938 = 100); weighted average of retail prices of 29 articles of food in cities of over 10,000 population, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [8] Retail food price index, base 1936-38 = 100.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base : 1937 = 100)

Country	Europe *(cont.)*						
	Germany		Greece	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland	Italy
Town or no. of localities	Bizonia	French Zone	Athens	Budapest	Reykjavik	120	62 [1]
Original base (=100)	1938		1938	Aug. 1939	Jan.-Mar. 1939	July 1914	1938
Cost of living							
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	.	.	100	.	.	100	100
1938	100	100	101	.	.	102	108
1939	.	.	100	100 [2]	100 [3]	105	112
1940	.	.	111	.	*128*	121	131
1941	.	.	.	.	*160*	133	152
1942	.	.	.	.	*206*	147	175
1943	.	.	.	.	*256*	166	294
1944	.	.	.	.	*268*	174	1 307
1945	.	*111* [4]	1 909	.	*277*	173	2 723
1946	*125* [5]	*125* [5]	14 625[r]	*411*[r] [6]	*293*	171 [7]	3 039
1947	*126*	*122*	17 586[r]	*462*[r]	*315*	181	4 925
1948	*134*	...	...	...	*322*	186	4 844
1947 : Dec.	*125*	*122*	21 775	*500*[r]	*328*	.	5 306
1948 : Jan.	*126*[r]	*122*	23 069[r]	*507*[r]	*319*	.	5 212
Feb.	*127*[r]	*122*	24 345[r]	*624*[r]	*319*	186	5 157
Mar.	*127*[r]	*122*	24 634[r]	*513*[r]	*320*	.	5 295
April	*128*	*122*	23 907[r]	*516*[r]	*323*	.	5 314
May	*130*	*122*	24 915	*524*[r]	*320*	188	5 246
June	*134*	*123*	24 519	*491*[r]	*319*	.	5 204
July	*138*	*128*	24 579	*462*[r]	*320*	.	4 953
Aug.	*136*	*128*	25 221	*455*[r]	*321*	186	5 158[r]
Sept.	*136*	*131*	25 308	*435*[r]	*322*	.	5 285
Oct.	*141*	*136*	25 569	*453*	*324*	.	5 208
Nov.	*143*	...	...	*457*	*325*	186	5 242
Dec.	*144*	...	...	...	*326*	.	5 293
Food							
1937	.	.	100	.	.	100	.
1938	100	100	97	.	.	102	100
1939	.	.	95	100 [2]	100 [3]	104	.
1940	.	.	107	.	*137*	117	.
1941	.	.	.	.	*189*	129	.
1942	.	.	.	.	*264*	143	.
1943	.	.	.	.	*330*	159	.
1944	.	.	.	.	*334*	168	.
1945	.	*110* [4]	1 764	.	*342*	169	.
1946	*117* [5]	*120* [5]	15 776	*540*[r] [6]	*361*	169 [7]	*3 586*
1947	*120*[r]	*117*	19 511	*658*[r]	*373*	188	*5 834*
1948	*133*	...	...	...	*360*	188	*6 083*
1947 : Dec.	*117*[r]	*116*	25 749	*746*[r]	*382*	.	*6 196*
1948 : Jan.	*118*[r]	*116*	27 689	*762*[r]	*360*	.	*6 068*
Feb.	*119*[r]	*116*	29 459	*796*[r]	*360*	187	*6 008*
Mar.	*120*[r]	*117*	29 845	*770*[r]	*360*	.	*6 206*
April	*122*[r]	*117*	27 775	*778*[r]	*355*	.	*6 254*
May	*127*[r]	*117*	29 668	*788*[r]	*356*	192	*6 162*
June	*136*[r]	*117*	28 576	*707*[r]	*356*	.	*6 111*
July	*145*[r]	*128*	28 224	*637*[r]	*359*	.	*5 747*
Aug.	*137*	*130*	29 596	*618*[r]	*359*	188	*6 004*
Sept.	*133*	*134*	29 503	*567*[r]	*365*	.	*6 162*
Oct.	*141*	*143*	29 928	*600*	*365*	.	*6 041*
Nov.	*146*	...	...	*611*	*364*	187	*6 081*
Dec.	*149*	...	...	...	*364*	.	*6 149*

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food ; *b* = Fuel and light ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Cities of over 50,000 inhabitants. [2] End of Aug. [3] Jan.-Mar. [4] Oct. [5] July-Dec. [6] Aug.-Dec.
[7] From Aug. 1946 : interim index ; composition *a-d*, spliced by I.L.O. to old series.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Europe *(cont.)*							
	Luxembourg	Netherlands		Norway	Poland	Portugal	Spain	Sweden
Town or no. of localities	9	Amsterdam	6	31	Warsaw	Lisbon	50	60
Original base (=100)	1914	9 Dec. 1938-3 June 1939	1938-1939	1938	1937	July 1938-June 1939	July 1936	1935
Cost of living								
Composition of the index	*a-c, e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-b*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	100	.	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	103	.	101	103	.	100	.	102
1939	102	100[1]	102	105	.	*101*[1]	*154*[1 2]	104
1940	111[1]	.	117	122	.	*111*	*178*	116
1941	.	.	134	143	.	*122*	*232*	133
1942	.	.	143	152	.	*138*	*247*	143
1943	.	.	149	155	.	*154*	*246*	146
1944	173[1]	.	153[1]	157	.	*172*	*257*	145
1945	215	.	176[2]	160	7 749[1]	*188*	*276*	145
1946	272	*208*[1]	192[1]	164	9 251	*208*	*361*	146
1947	284	*203*	199	165	12 253	*211*	*424*	150
1948	100[4]	...	...	164	...	*205*	...	158
1947 : Dec.	.	*200*	202	163	12 880	*208*	*445*	152
1948 : Jan.	100[r]	.	202	163	13 010	*211*	*449*	.
Feb.	*101*[r]	.	202	164	13 130	*204*	*453*	.
Mar.	*101*[r]	*206*	203	165	13 200	*196*	*456*	157
April	*101*[r]	.	204	166	12 870	*196*	*458*	.
May	*101*[r]	.	203	166	12 920	*193*	*451*	.
June	*101*[r]	*207*	207	164	12 960	*200*	*447*	158
July	*102*[r]	.	207	165	13 030	*202*	*444*	.
Aug.	*103*[r]	.	203	163	12 970	*209*	*446*[r]	.
Sept.	*102*[r]	*206*	...	163	13 040	*211*	*450*	160
Oct.	*101*[r]	.	...	162	...	*213*	*458*	.
Nov.	*101*	.	...	162	...	*215*	...	.
Dec.	*101*	...	...	162	...	*213*	...	160
Food								
1937	100	.	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	104	.	102	104	.	100	.	103
1939	103	100[1]	103	106	.	*101*[1]	*178*[1 2]	106
1940	111[1]	.	121	127	.	*111*	*215*	119
1941	.	.	145	152	.	*124*	*300*	137
1942	.	.	159	158	.	*141*	*318*	149
1943	.	.	161	160	.	*154*	*310*	149
1944	173[1]	.	166[1]	161	.	*173*	*323*	147
1945	209	.	170[2]	163	11 198[1]	*192*	*347*	146
1946	254	*224*[1]	195[1]	163	12 990	*217*	*491*	148
1947	271	*218*	213	162	16 155	*220*	*581*	156
1948	100[4]	...	...	158	...	*211*	...	168
1947 : Dec.	.	*217*	223	158	17 090	*216*	*602*	159
1948 : Jan.	100[r]	.	223	159	17 040	*220*	*605*	167
Feb.	...	.	223	160	17 100	*212*	*609*	167
Mar.	...	*230*	225	160	17 180	*203*	*613*	167
April	...	.	227	162	16 630	*203*	*613*	166
May	...	.	227	162	16 710	*199*	*598*	167
June	...	*233*	234	159	16 610	*203*	*589*	168
July	...	.	233	159	17 120	*205*	*581*	168
Aug.	...	.	224	156	16 960	*214*	*584*	168
Sept.	...	*230*	...	154	17 340	*215*	*588*	171
Oct.	...	.	...	153	...	*217*	*600*	170
Nov.	...	.	...	153	...	*220*[r]	...	170
Dec.	...	...	...	153	...	*218*	...	169

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [2] July 1936 = 100. [3] Sept. and Dec. [4] Jan.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(concl.)*

(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Europe *(concl.)*			Oceania			
	Switzerland	Turkey	United Kingdom	Australia	Fiji	Hawaii	New Zealand
Town or no. of localities	34	Istanbul	504-24	30	Suva	Honolulu	25-4
Original base (=100)	June 1914	1938	July 1914	1923-1927	Aug. 1939	Mar. 1943	1926-1930
Cost of living							
Composition of the index	*a-d*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	100	100	101	103	.	.	103
1939	101	101	103	105	100[1]	.	107
1940	110	112	119	110	.	.	112
1941	127	138	129	115	.	.	116
1942	141	232	130	125	.	.	120
1943	149	346	129	129	.	100[2]	123[3]
1944	152	338	130	129	*172*	*102*	123
1945	153	353	132	129	*167*	*104*	123
1946	152	341	132	131	*169*	*113*	123
1947	159	343	100[4]	136	*191*	*128*	127
1948	164	...	...	148	...	*135*	...
1947: Dec.	163	340	*104*	.	.	*131*	133
1948: Jan.	164	340	*104*	.	*204*	.	.
Feb.	163	338	*106*	143[5]	.	.	.
Mar.	163	341	*106*	.	.	*132*	135
April	163	344	*108*	.	*210*	.	.
May	163	345	*108*	146[5]	.	.	.
June	164	342	*110*	.	.	*133*	136
July	163	...	*108*	.	...	.	.
Aug.	163	...	*108*	150[5]	.	.	.
Sept.	163	...	*108*	.	.	*136*	134
Oct.	163	...	*108*	.	...	.	.
Nov.	166	...	*109*	154[5]	.	.	.
Dec.	164	...	...	.	.	*138*	...
Food							
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	.
1938	100	98	101	104	.	.	.
1939	102	98	101	109	100[1]	.	.
1940	113	111	118	110	.	.	.
1941	135	141	121	111	.	.	.
1942	155	275	116	121	.	.	.
1943	163	449	119	122	.	100[2]	.
1944	166	399	121	120	*157*	*100*	.
1945	166	407	122	121	*154*	*101*	.
1946	162	405	122	122	*157*	*117*	.
1947	171	400	100[4]	129	*185*	*141*[7]	.
1948	177	...	...	148	...	*149*	.
1947: Dec.	178	397	*103*	137	.	*144*	.
1948: Jan.	178	399	*104*	138	*197*	*145*	.
Feb.	178	397	*108*	141	.	*145*	.
Mar.	177	405	*109*	141	.	*146*	.
April	177	407	*109*	142	*204*	*144*	.
May	176	412	*108*	144	.	*144*	.
June	177	407	*113*	147	.	*143*	.
July	176	...	*108*	149	...	*147*	.
Aug.	176	...	*108*	149	.	*149*	.
Sept.	177[6]	...	*107*	151	.	*151*	.
Oct.	177	...	*108*	154	...	*156*	.
Nov.	181	...	*108*	155	.	*157*	.
Dec.	179	...	...	159	.	*156*	.

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Aug. [2] Mar. [3] New special wartime price index with base Dec. 1942 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old retail price series. [4] Interim index: 200 cities; 17 June 1947=100. Quarterly averages. [5] Including heating. [6] Average of 8 months.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

(a) *Hourly rates or earnings*

Date	America				Europe			
	Canada		United States	Argentina	Austria [1]	Czechoslovakia [2]		
	Man.	Mi., man., constr., transp., etc.	Man.	Mi., man.	Man.	Mi., man., constr.		
	M. W. Earnings	M. W. Rates	M. W. Earnings	M. W. Earnings	M. W. Earnings	M. Rates	W. Rates	M. W. Rates
Money wages								
	Cents		Cents			Kč.	Kč.	Kč.
1937	.	.	62.4	.	.	.	.	.
1938	.	.	62.7	.	.	.	.	.
1939	.	.	63.3	.	.	3.86 [3]	2.22 [3]	3.45 [3]
1940	.	.	66.1	.	.	5.12	4.99	4.58
1941	.	.	72.9	.	.	5.86	5.46	5.25
1942	.	.	85.3	.	.	6.25	5.82	5.64
1943	.	.	96.1	.	.	6.26	3.95	5.68
1944	.	.	101.9	.	.	6.26	3.97	5.69
1945	69.4	.	102.3	.	.	6.88	4.51	6.28
1946	70.0	.	108.4	.	.	11.09	8.70	10.49
1947	80.3	.	122.1	.	.	11.39	9.09	10.81
1947 : Sept.	83.4	.	124.9	.	.	11.52	9.12	10.92
Dec.	86.6	.	127.8	.	.	11.52	9.12	10.92
1948 : Mar.	89.0	.	128.9	.	.	11.52	9.12	10.92
June	92.3	.	131.6 [r]	.	.	11.52	9.12	10.93 [r]
Sept.	94.6	.	136.2	.	.	...	...	10.93
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1937 = 100)								
1937	.	100	100	.	.	.	.	.
1938	.	103	100	.	100	.	.	.
1939	.	103	101	.	.	100 [3]	100 [3]	100 [3]
1940	.	107	106	.	.	*133*	*135*	*133*
1941	.	117	117	.	.	*152*	*156*	*152*
1942	.	127	137	.	.	*162*	*172*	*163*
1943	.	138	154	100	.	*162*	*178*	*165*
1944	.	143	163	*169*	.	*162*	*179*	*165*
1945	100	147	164	*126*	.	*178*	*203*	*182*
1946	*101*	160	174	*161*	.	*287*	*392*	*304*
1947	*116*	181	196	*226*	*191*	*295*	*409*	*314*
1947 : Sept.	*120*	.	200	*217*	*244*	*298*	*411*	*316*
Dec.	*125*	.	205	*450*	*258*	*298*	*411*	*316*
1948 : Mar.	*128*	.	207	*257*	*255*	*298*	*411*	*317*
June	*133*	.	211	...	*271*	*298*	*411*	*317* [r]
Sept.	*136*	.	218	...	...	...	...	*317*
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1937 = 100)								
1937	.	100	100	.	.	.	.	.
1938	.	102	102	.	100	.	.	.
1939	.	103	105	.	.	(100) [3]	(100) [3]	(100) [3]
1940	.	103	109	.	.	*(104)*	*(105)*	*(101)*
1941	.	106	114	.	.	*(102)*	*(105)*	*(102)*
1942	.	110	121	.	.	*(100)*	*(106)*	*(101)*
1943	.	118	128	(100)	.	*(101)*	*(111)*	*(103)*
1944	.	121	134	*(109)*	.	*(101)*	*(111)*	*(102)*
1945	100	120	131	*(105)*	.	*(105)*	*(120)*	*(107)*
1946	*98*	131	128	*(114)*	.	*(93)*	*(127)*	*(99)*
1947	*102*	135	126	*(142)*	*91*	*(100)*	*(139)*	*(106)*
1947 : Sept.	*101*	.	126	*(132)*	*84*	*(105)*	*(144)*	*(111)*
Dec.	*101*	.	126	*(266)*	*85*	*(103)*	*(142)*	*(110)*
1948 : Mar.	*101*	.	127	*(152)*	*82*	*(102)*	*(140)*	*(108)*
June	*101*	.	126	...	*88*	*(100)*	*(138)*	*(107)*
Sept.	*102*	.	128	...	...	...	...	*(111)*
Persons cov. (thousands)	770 [4]	.	717 [4]	.	.	.	.	.

[1] Vienna. [2] Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia only. [3] Mar. [4] Average for 1947.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

(a) *Hourly rates or earnings* (cont.)

Date	Europe (cont.)						
	Denmark				Finland		France
	Man., transp., etc.				Mi., man., constr., transp.		Metals (Paris)
	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M.
	Earnings				Earnings		Rates
	Money wages						
	Öre	Öre	Öre	Öre			Frs.
1937	158	133	88	135	.	.	9.41
1938	166	140	94	142	.	.	10.62
1939	172	146	96	147	.	.	11.11
1940	191	161	108	163	.	.	11.19
1941	203	175	119	176	.	.	11.93
1942	213	182	123	184	.	.	12.56
1943	227	199	130	198	.	.	14.11
1944	238	212	140	210	.	.	17.81
1945	256	224	155	225	.	.	29.39
1946	286	247	174	249	.	.	39.79
1947	304	259	186	263	.	.	58.45
1947 : Sept.	306	263	188	266	.	.	60.21
Dec.	317	267	194 r	273	.	.	67.84
1948 : Mar.	323	270	193	271	.	.	77.95
June	328	280	201	285	.	.	81.86
Sept.	...	...	...	...	.	.	86.07
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1937 = 100)						
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	105	105	107	105	.	.	113
1939	109	110	109	109	100	100	118
1940	121	121	123	121	...	...	119
1941	128	132	135	130	...	...	127
1942	135	137	140	136	*176*	*177*	133
1943	144	150	148	147	*205*	*209*	150
1944	151	159	159	156	*235*	*243*	189
1945	162	168	176	167	*420*	*510*	312
1946	181	186	198	184	*563*	*675*	423
1947	192	195	211	195	...	...	621
1947 : Sept.	194	198	214	197	*812*	*927*	640
Dec.	201	201	220 r	202	...	...	721
1948 : Mar.	204	203	219	201	...	...	828
June	208	211	228	211	...	...	870
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	...	915
	Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1937 = 100)						
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	103	103	105	103	.	.	100
1939	105	106	105	105	100	100	96
1940	93	94	95	93	...	...	81
1941	85	87	90	87	...	...	74
1942	86	88	90	87	*105*	*107*	67
1943	91	95	93	93	*109*	*111*	59
1944	94	100	99	97	*118*	*122*	58
1945	100	104	109	103	*150*	*183*	70
1946	112	115	123	115	*126*	*152*	57
1947	117	118	128	118	...	...	53
1947 : Sept.	117	119	129	119	*175*	*200*	48
Dec.	120 r	120 r	132 r	121 r	...	...	47
1948: Mar.	123	122	132	120	...	...	48
June	124	126	136	126	...	...	50
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	...	45
Persons covered (thousands)	68 [1]	94 [1]	47 [1]	209 [1]	59 [2]	35 [2]	.

[1] 31 Dec. 1947. [2] June 1946.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(a) *Hourly rates or earnings* (cont.)

Date	Europe *(cont.)*					
	France *(concl.)*				Germany[2]	Hungary
	Man., constr.[1]			Man., constr.	Man.[4]	Man.
	Paris	Other towns				
	M. chiefly skilled		W. chiefly sk.	M. W.[3] chiefly sk.	M. W.	M. W.
	Rates				Earnings	Earnings
	Money wages					
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.		RM.	Pengö
1937	10.06	5.60	3.08	.	.	0.45
1938	10.67	6.20	3.42	.	0.74 [5]	0.48
1939	10.90	6.30	3.42	.	.	0.53
1940	10.90	6.34	3.50	.	.	0.56
1941	12.11	7.17	4.15	.	.	0.67
1942	12.27	8.22	5.19	.	.	0.79
1943	12.73	9.11	5.75	.	.	1.13
1944	22.68	15.82	11.10	.	.	.
1945	34.78	27.46	22.16	.	.	.
1946	47.99	37.19	31.74	.	0.87 [6]	1.34
1947	55.98	43.80	38.58	.	0.92	1.67
1947 : Sept.	55.98	43.80	38.58	.	0.93	1.54
Dec.	.	.	.	.	0.96	1.56
1948 : Mar.	79.50	63.07	53.74	.	0.97	1.82
June	.	.	.	.	...	1.93
Sept.	87.54	...	...	.	...	...
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1937 = 100)					
1937	100	100	100	100	.	100
1938	106	111	111	110	100 [5]	107
1939	108	112	111	112	.	118
1940	108	113	114	113	.	124
1941	120	128	135	127	.	149
1942	122	147	169	143	.	176
1943	127	163	187	158	.	251
1944	225	282	360	272	.	.
1945	346	490	719	473	.	.
1946	477	664	1 031	654	*118* [6]	298
1947	556	782	1 253	784	*124*	371
1947 : Sept.	556	782	1 253	784	*126*	342
Dec.	.	.	.	.	*130*	347
1948 : Mar.	790	1 126	1 745	1 110	*130*	404
June	.	.	.	.	...	429
Sept.	870	...	...	...	...	...
	Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1937 = 100)					
1937	100	100	100	100	.	(100)
1938	94	97	98	97	100 [5]	(106)
1939	88	92	90	91	.	(119)
1940	74	74	74	74	.	(116)
1941	70	69	72	68	.	(117)
1942	61	68	78	66	.	(119)
1943	50	61	70	59	.	(142)
1944	69	84	107	80	.	.
1945	77	104	152	100	.	.
1946	53	60	93	59	*94* [6]	(83)
1947	42	46	73	46	*99*	(85)
1947 : Sept.	42	46	73	46	*99*	(83)
Dec.	.	.	.	.	*103*	(69)
1948 : Mar.	46	58	90	57	*101*	(80)
June	.	.	.	.	...	(95)
Sept.	43	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	.	.	251 [7]	401 [7]

[1] Annual figures, Oct. of each year. [2] United States Zone only; 1938 and 1946, excluding Land Bremen. [3] Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the rates of the four preceding series. [4] Including building. [5] Mar. [6] Average of June and Sept. [7] Average for 1947.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

(a) *Hourly rates or earnings* (cont.)

Date	Europe (cont.)							
	Ireland				Italy	Netherlands		Norway
	Mi., man.				Mi., man.	Mi., man., constr.		Mi., man.
	M.	W.	M. W.[1]	M. W.	M. W.	M.	M.	M.
	Earnings[2]			Rates[3]	Rates	Earnings	Rates[4]	Earnings
	Money wages							
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.					Kr.
1937	1 3.2	0 7.9	0 11.4	.	.	.	.	.
1938	1 3.3	0 8.2	0 11.9	.	.	.	.	.
1939	1 3.6	0 8.5	1 0.1	.	.	.	.	.
1940	1 4.2	0 9.0	1 0.6	.	.	.	.	1.72
1941	1 4.5	0 9.2	1 0.9	.	.	.	.	1.76
1942	1 5.2	0 9.3	1 1.5	.	.	.	.	1.83
1943	1 6.2	0 10.3	1 2.6	.	.	.	.	1.88
1944	1 7.4	0 11.1	1 3.6	.	.	.	.	1.92
1945	1 7.9	0 11.3	1 3.8	.	.	.	.	2.17
1946	1 9.2	1 0.4	1 4.8	.	.	.	.	2.52
1947	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	2.78
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2.80
Dec.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2.87
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2.85
June	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...
Sept.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1937 = 100)							
1937	100	100	100	.	.	100	100	.
1938	101	104	104	.	100	104	103	.
1939	103	108	106	100[5]	.	106	104	.
1940	107	114	111	*106*	.	113	108	100
1941	109	116	113	*109*	.	119	111	*102*
1942	113	118	118	*109*	.	128	112	*106*
1943	120	130	128	*117*	.	134	112	*109*
1944	128	141	137	*123*	.	140	113	*112*
1945	131	143	139	*125*	.	163	135	*126*
1946	140	157	174	*131*	.	189	168	*147*
1947	...	...	...	*150*	*4 130*	203	173	*162*
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	*155*	*5 021*	.	175	*163*
Dec.	.	.	.	.	*5 182*	206	179	*167*
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	*162*	*5 213*	.	180	*166*
June	.	.	.	.	*5 216*	...	181[7]	...
Sept.	.	.	.	...	*5 315*	.	...	...
	Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1937 = 100)							
1937	100	100	100	.	.	100	100	.
1938	101	104	105	.	100	103	102	.
1939	95	99	98	100[5]	.	104	102	.
1940	88	94	91	*91*	.	97	93	100
1941	81	87	85	*84*	.	88	83	*87*
1942	73	76	77	*78*	.	89	78	*86*
1943	72	79	77	*73*	.	90	76	*86*
1944	76	84	82	*72*	.	91	73	*87*
1945	78	85	82	*74*	.	93	77	*96*
1946	84	95	89	*78*	.	98	87	*109*
1947	...	...	...	*85*	*90*	102	87	*120*
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	*84*	*94*	.	88	*122*
Dec.	.	.	.	.	*105*	104[7]	113	*125*
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	*91*	*106*	.	89	*123*
June	.	.	.	.	*108*	...	89	...
Sept.	.	.	.	...	*108*	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	...	...	97[6]	72[7]	1 527[8]	94[9]	350[9]	.

[1] Including juveniles. [2] Annual figures, week in Oct. [3] Based on weekly rates of wages for a full-time week assuming no change in normal hours. [4] Annual figures: up to 1944, averages of 30 June and 31 Dec.; since 1945, averages of monthly figures. [5] Sept. [6] Week in mid.-Oct. 1946. [7] Sept. 1947. [8] June 1938. [9] Average for 1945.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(b) *Daily, weekly or monthly earnings* (cont.)

Date	Europe					
	Bulgaria			Czechoslovakia [1]	France	Germany [2]
	Mi., man.			Agr., man, transp., com., etc.	Man.	Man. [3]
	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.
	Daily [4]			Daily [5]	Weekly [6]	Weekly
	Money wages					
	Leva	Leva	Leva	Kč.		RM.
1937	52.8	39.0	44.9	17.09	.	.
1938	54.2	42.2	47.5	17.71	.	35.67 [7]
1939	56.6	42.9	49.0	18.92 [8]	.	.
1940	60.5	46.6	52.7	.	.	.
1941	72.9	54.6	62.4	.	.	.
1942	88.4	59.3	72.6	.	.	.
1943	113.2	77.7	93.5	.	.	.
1944	184.5	142.5	162.7	.	.	.
1945	318.1	244.9	278.0	.	.	.
1946	...	...	308.1	92.50 [9]	.	35.01 [10]
1947	...	...	351.5	101.51	.	36.50
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	103.52	.	37.12
Dec.	...	...	...	109.08	.	38.21
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	...	.	39.77
June	...	...	...	...	.	...
Sept.	.	.	.	...	.	...
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1937 = 100)					
1937	100	100	100	100	100	.
1938	103	108	106	104	106	100 [7]
1939	107	110	109	111 [8]	114	.
1940	115	120	117	.	100	.
1941	138	140	139	.	120	.
1942	167	152	162	.	147	.
1943	214	199	208	.	176	.
1944	349	366	362	.	291	.
1945	602	629	619	.	500	.
1946	...	...	686	100 [9]	703	*98* [10]
1947	...	...	783	*110*	870	*102*
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	*112*	878	*104*
Dec.	...	...	...	*118*	.	*107*
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	...	1 237	*112*
June	...	...	...	...	.	...
Sept.	.	.	.	...	...	...
	Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1937 = 100)					
1937	100	100	100	(100)	100	.
1938	99	105	102	(99)	93	100 [7]
1939	101	104	103	(96) [8]	93	.
1940	97	101	99	.	65	.
1941	96	98	97	.	64	.
1942	89	81	86	.	68	.
1943	89	83	87	.	66	.
1944	97	102	101	.	86	.
1945	112	116	115	.	106	.
1946	...	...	113	100 [9]	85	*78* [10]
1947	...	...	116	*116*	66	*81*
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	*124*	51	*82*
Dec.	...	...	...	*128*	.	*85*
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	...	64	*87*
June	...	...	...	...	.	...
Sept.	.	.	.	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	26 [11]	27 [11]	53 [11]	3 374 [12]	.	251 [13]

[1] Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia. [2] United States Zone only; 1938 and 1946, excluding Land Bremen. [3] Including building. [4] Annual figures derived by dividing the sum of the total wages paid in Jan. and July of each year by the sum of the numbers of workers in receipt of the wages. [5] Insurance statistics (sickness). Figures since Nov. 1946 not comparable with pre-war figures, owing to increased coverage. [6] Series calculated by I.L.O.: hourly rates multiplied by hours actually worked per week. [7] Mar. [8] Jan.-July. [9] Nov. [10] Average of June and Sept. [11] Average for 1945. [12] Average for 1947.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(b) *Daily, weekly or monthly earnings* (cont.)

Date	Europe (cont.)								
	Ireland [1]				Netherlands	Sweden		
	Man.				Mi., man., com., transp., etc.	Mi.[2], man., com., transp.		
	M.	W.	M. W.[3]	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.
	Weekly				Daily [3]	Weekly		
	Money wages							
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		Fl.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
1937	56 3 [4]	28 10 [4]	41 11 [4]	.	3.52	61.48	35.40	54.75
1938	58 3	29 10	43 10	.	3.54	64.75	36.69	57.40
1939	59 4	31 6	44 10	.	3.56	67.19	38.85	59.82
1940	61 4	32 7	46 6	.	3.71	72.10	42.40	64.49
1941	62 2	32 5	47 0	.	3.99	77.13	45.45	68.56
1942	64 4	31 11	48 7	.	4.26	83.24	49.48	74.50
1943	68 8	35 3	52 9	.	4.60	87.56	52.32	78.58
1944	73 4	38 4	56 10	.	...	90.10	55.30	81.40
1945	76 1	40 5	58 5	.	...	93.88	58.20	85.62
1946	81 7	44 10	62 7	.	5.81	100.92	63.30	92.56
1947	...	...	...	.	...	...	...	...
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Dec.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
June	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1937 = 100)							
1937	100 [4]	100 [4]	100 [4]	.	100	100	100	100
1938	104	103	105	.	101	105	104	105
1939	105	109	107	100 [5]	101	109	110	109
1940	109	113	111	*103*	105	117	120	118
1941	111	112	112	*105*	113	125	128	125
1942	114	111	116	*106*	121	135	140	136
1943	122	122	126	*117*	131	142	148	144
1944	130	133	136	*126*	...	147	156	149
1945	135	140	139	*131*	...	153	164	156
1946	145	156	148	*139*	165 [7]	164	179	169
1947	...	...	...	*160*	...	...	...	...
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	*169*	.	.	.	.
Dec.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	*178*	.	.	.	.
June	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	.	...	.	.	.	.
	Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1937 = 100)							
1937	100 [4]	100 [4]	100 [4]	.	100	100	100	100
1938	104	104	105	.	100	103	101	102
1939	97	101	99	100 [5]	99	105	105	105
1940	90	93	92	*89*	90	101	103	101
1941	83	84	84	*82*	84	94	96	94
1942	74	72	75	*74*	84	93	96	94
1943	74	74	76	*72*	88	96	100	97
1944	78	79	81	*74*	...	98	105	100
1945	80	83	83	*77*	...	102	110	105
1946	88	94	89	*83*	86	109	119	112
1947	...	...	...	*90*	...	...	...	...
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	*91*	.	.	.	.
Dec.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	*100*	.	.	.	.
June	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	.	...	.	.	.	.
Persons emp. (thousands)	...	...	97 [6]	71 [7]	1 501 [8]	469 [8]	91 [8]	592 [8]

[1] Annual figures : (first series) week in Oct. ; (second series) averages of Mar. and Sept. [2] Including juveniles.
[3] Insurance statistics (accidents). [4] Oct. [5] Sept. [6] Oct. 1946. [7] Average for 1947. [8] Average for 1946.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(b) *Daily, weekly or monthly earnings* (concl.)

Date	Europe (concl.)							Oceania		
	Switzerland				United Kingdom			New Zealand		
	Mi., man., com., transp.[6], etc.				Mi., man., transp.			Man.		
	M. sk. semi-sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W.[1]	M.	W.	M. W.[2]	M.	W.	M. W.
	Daily				Weekly [3]			Weekly [4]		
Money wages										
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1937	11.90	9.69	6.24	.	.	.	.	88 9	37 6	75 7
1938	12.11	9.58	6.34	.	69 0 [5]	32 6 [5]	53 3 [5]	94 6	38 4	80 8
1939	12.20	9.69	6.21	.	.	.	.	98 5	41 7	84 4
1940	12.62	9.95	6.34	.	89 0	38 11	69 2	101 9	44 10	86 10
1941	13.34	10.75	6.97	.	99 5	43 11	75 10	109 10	49 1	92 10
1942	14.66	12.05	7.76	.	111 5	54 2	85 2	121 8	53 2	101 0
1943	16.03	13.22	8.55	.	121 3	62 2	93 7	132 9	59 5	110 5
1944	16.90	14.03	9.13	.	124 4	64 3	96 8	130 3	62 0	109 11
1945	17.64	14.70	9.56	.	121 4	63 2	96 1	134 10	63 9	114 5
1946	19.25	16.02	10.91	.	120 9 [5]	65 3 [5]	101 0 [5]	143 8	69 0	125 5
1947	21.23	17.69	12.41	.	128 1 [5]	69 7 [5]	108 2 [5]	149 5	74 0	131 9
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	.	128 1	69 7	108 2	.	.	.
Dec.	21.67	18.30	12.49	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	.	127 7	69 7	114 0	.	.	.
June	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1937 = 100)										
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	.	100	100	100
1938	102	99	102	101	100 [5]	100 [5]	100 [5]	106	102	107
1939	103	100	100	101	.	.	.	111	111	112
1940	106	103	102	104	*129*	*120*	*130*	115	120	115
1941	112	111	112	112	*144*	*135*	*142*	124	131	123
1942	123	124	124	124	*161*	*167*	*160*	137	142	134
1943	135	136	137	136	*176*	*191*	*176*	150	158	146
1944	142	145	146	144	*150*	*198*	*182*	147	165	145
1945	148	152	153	150	*176*	*194*	*180*	152	170	151
1946	162	165	175	165	*175* [5]	*201* [5]	*190* [5]	162	184	166
1947	178	183	198	182	*186* [5]	*214* [5]	*203* [5]	168	197	174
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	.	*186*	*214*	*203*	.	.	.
Dec.	182	189	200	187	.	.	.	.	.	.
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	.	*185*	*214*	*178*	.	.	.
June	...	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1937 = 100)										
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	.	100	100	100
1938	102	99	101	100	100 [5]	100 [5]	100 [5]	103	99	104
1939	101	99	99	100	.	.	.	103	103	104
1940	96	93	92	94	*108*	*109*	*108*	102	107	102
1941	88	87	88	88	*113*	*106*	*112*	106	113	106
1942	87	88	88	88	*125*	*129*	*123*	114	118	111
1943	91	92	92	91	*138*	*150*	*138*	122	129	119
1944	93	95	96	94	*139*	*152*	*140*	120	135	119
1945	97	99	100	98	*134*	*149*	*138*	124	138	123
1946	106	109	115	109	*135* [5]	*154* [5]	*146* [5]	131	149	135
1947	112	115	125	115	*141* [5]	*163* [5]	*155* [5]	132	155	137
1947 : Sept.	.	.	.	.	*141*	*163*	*155*	.	.	.
Dec.	113	117	124	116	.	.	.	.	.	.
1948 : Mar.	.	.	.	.	*132*	*152*	*127*	.	.	.
June	...	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	9[8]	7[8]	1[8]	18[8]	...	...	6 000 [7]	85	28	113[8]

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the earnings for men and women. [2] Including juveniles. [3] Annual figures July. [4] Annual figures week nearest 31 Mar. [5] Oct. [6] Average for 1947. [7] Oct. 1947. [8] Week at end Mar. 1946.

Hours of Work

STATISTICS OF HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY

(a) *Hours actually worked per worker*

Date	AFRICA	AMERICA			ASIA	EUROPE		
	Egypt	Canada [1]	United States	Argentina (Buenos Aires)	Japan	Czechoslovakia	Finland [2]	France
	Mi., man., constr., etc.	Man. [3] [4]	Man.	Man., constr., com., transp.	Man.	Man. [3]	Man.	Man.
	Per week [5]	Per week	Per week	Per week	Per day [6]	Per week	Per fortnight	Per week [7]
Number of hours								
1937	.	48.8	38.6	45.49	9.91	.	89.9	40.2
1939	.	46.7	35.6	45.49	9.94 [8]	.	91.7	38.8
1939	.	47.2	37.7	44.50	9.46	44.98 [9]	90.1	40.9
1940	.	50.1	38.1	45.25	9.45	.	89.6	.
1941	.	50.6	40.6	45.05	9.50	.	88.3	38.0
1942	55.0 [10]	50.2	42.9	45.05	9.58	.	90.1	41.3
1943	51.5	48.8	44.9	46.31	9.67	.	91.3	44.9
1944	50.5	47.5	45.2	46.34	10.17	.	91.2	43.1
1945	50.5	44.3	43.4	46.68	9.92	.	89.8	42.5
1946	51.0	42.7	40.4	...	.	45.16 [11]	88.5	43.5
1947	51.5	42.5	40.3	...	.	46.10	88.7	44.7
1947 : Sept.	.	43.1	40.4	.	.	44.64	84.8	45.0
Dec.	...	38.3	41.2	.	.	47.76	89.5	.
1948 : Mar.	.	41.6	40.4	.	.	45.62	91.2	44.8
June	...	42.0	40.2	.	.	46.62	90.4	...
Sept.	.	43.0	39.8	.	.	46.06	88.1	...
Index numbers (1937 = 100)								
1937	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	100.0	100.0
1938	.	95.7	92.2	100.0	100.3 [8]	.	102.0	96.5
1939	.	96.7	97.7	97.8	95.4	100.0 [9]	100.2	101.7
1940	.	102.7	98.7	99.5	95.4	.	99.7	.
1941	.	103.7	105.2	99.0	95.9	.	100.0	94.5
1942	100.0 [10]	102.9	111.1	99.0	96.0	.	*102.0*	102.7
1943	*93.6*	100.0	116.3	101.8	97.6	.	*103.4*	111.7
1944	*91.8*	97.3	117.1	101.9	102.6	.	*103.3*	107.2
1945	*91.8*	100.0	112.4	102.6	100.1	.	*101.7*	105.7
1946	*92.7*	*96.4*	104.7	...	.	*100.4* [11]	*100.2*	108.2
1947	*93.6*	*95.9*	104.4	...	.	*102.5*	*100.5*	111.2
1947 : Sept.	.	*97.3*	104.7	.	.	*99.2*	*96.0*	111.9
Dec.	...	*86.5*	106.7	.	.	*106.2*	*101.4*	.
1948 : Mar.	.	*93.9*	104.7	.	.	*101.4*	*103.3*	111.4
June	...	*94.8*	104.1	.	.	*105.1*	*102.4*	...
Sept.	.	97.1	103.1	.	.	*102.4*	*99.8*	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	122 [12]	.../770 [13]	717 [13]	.	1 265 [14]	.	90 [13]	2 200 [15]

[1] Up to 1939, overtime excluded. Yearly figures up to 1944, month of highest employment; commencing 1945, statistics of establishments, and annual figures, averages of monthly figures. [2] Since 1941, the statistics cover an increased number of establishments. [3] Including mining. [4] Including building. [5] Annual figures: averages of Jan. and July. [6] After deduction by I.L.O. of rest periods. [7] Annual figures, commencing 1942, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944: Mar. and Dec., and 1945: Mar., June and Sept. [8] For 1937 and 1938 statistics of the Bank of Japan; from 1939 to 1941, statistics of the Imperial Cabinet, with which the former series were incorporated; and commencing 1941, figures of the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics. [9] Mar. [10] July. [11] Average of Feb. and Oct. [12] Average for 1946. [13] Average for 1947. [14] June 1945. [15] Jan. 1947.

STATISTICS OF HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY *(cont.)*
(a) *Hours actually worked per worker* (concl.)

Date	Europe *(concl.)*						
	Germany [1]	Hungary	Ireland	Netherlands	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom
	Man. [2]	Man.	Man.	Man. [3]	Man. [3]	Man.	Man. [4]
	Per week	Per day	Per week [5]	Per week [6]	Per week [7]	Per week	Per week [8]
	Number of hours						
1937	.	8.59	.	47.1	47.2	47.1	.
1938	48.2 [9]	8.42	44.2	47.7	46.3	46.3	46.5 [10]
1939	.	8.24	44.6	48.1	45.6	47.1	.
1940	.	8.36	44.4	44.7	46.6	47.3	.
1941	.	8.36	43.5	45.7	47.0	47.0	.
1942	.	8.60	43.1	48.5	47.2	46.8	.
1943	.	8.83	43.3	49.8	47.3	47.1	50.0
1944	.	.	43.6	.	47.2	47.3	48.6
1945	.	8.31	44.4	46.8	47.4	47.6	47.4
1946	...	8.53	44.7	48.8	46.8	47.9	46.2 [10]
1947	39.6	8.71	...	...	...	47.9	45.2 [10]
1947 : Sept.	39.9	9.02	.	.	.	47.9	45.2
Dec.	39.8	8.70	.	.	.	47.7	.
1948 : Mar.	41.0	8.85	.	.	.	47.7	45.3
June	...	8.33	.	.	.	47.8	.
Sept.	...	8.68	.	.	.	47.8	...
	Index numbers (1937 = 100)						
1937	.	100.0	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	.
1938	.	98.0	100.0	101.3	98.1	98.3	100.0 [10]
1939	100 [9]	95.9	*100.9*	102.1	96.6	100.0	.
1940	.	97.3	*100.5*	94.9	98.7	100.4	.
1941	.	97.3	*98.4*	97.0	99.6	99.8	.
1942	.	116.0	*97.5*	103.0	100.0	99.4	.
1943	.	102.8	*98.0*	105.7	100.2	100.0	*107.5*
1944	.	.	*98.6*	.	100.0	100.4	*104.5*
1945	.	96.7	*100.5*	99.4	100.4	101.1	*101.9*
1946	...	99.3	*101.1*	103.6	99.2	101.7	*99.4* [10]
1947	*82.2*	101.4	...	...	...	101.7	*97.2* [10]
1947 : Sept.	*82.8*	105.0	.	.	.	102.6	*97.2*
Dec.	*82.6*	88.9	.	.	.	102.1	.
1948 : Mar.	*85.0*	103.0	.	.	.	102.1	*97.4*
June	...	97.0	.	.	.	102.4	.
Sept.	...	101.0	.	.	.	102.4	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	235 [11]	401 [12]	97 [13]	262 [14]	543 [15]	342 [12]	6 000 [16]

[1] United States Zone: 1938 and 1946, excluding Land Bremen. [2] Including building. [3] Including mining. [4] Including a part of mining and transport. [5] Annual figures, Oct. [6] Annual figures, 1935-1938: averages for the second half-year; 1939-1945: one week in Sept., Oct. and Nov. [7] Annual figures: Nov., except 1937, July, and 1938 and 1939 averages of semi-annual figures. [8] Annual figures, July. [9] Mar. [10] Oct. [11] June 1947. [12] Average for 1947. [13] Average for 1946. [14] Oct-Nov. 1946. [15] May 1946. [16] Oct. 1947.

STATISTICS OF HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY *(concl.)*

(b) *Percentage distribution of workers according to hours worked*

Date	America								Europe		
	Canada [1]					United States			Finland		
	Per week					Per week [2]			Per fortnight		
	Up to 40 h.	41-47 h.	48 h.	49-54 h.	55 h. and more	Up to 39 h.	40-49 h.	50 h. and more	Under 80 h.	80.0-95.9 h.	96 h. and more
1937	11.8	25.3	22.1	19.6	21.2	.	.	.	0.0	65.7	34.3
1938	21.0 [3]	25.6 [4]	20.7	17.4	15.4	.	.	.	0.3	73.3	26.4
1939	18.0 [3]	24.7 [4]	22.2	19.1	16.0	.	.	.	2.9	74.1	23.0
1940	13.2 [3]	17.1 [4]	19.3	20.7	29.7	19.4	63.6 [5]	17.0 [6]	0.0	78.5	21.5
1941	11.6 [3]	15.8 [4]	19.5	21.8	31.3	18.1	63.4	18.5	6.6	70.0	23.4
1942	12.8 [3]	14.8 [4]	21.4	22.1	28.9	14.3	61.5	24.2	3.3	74.3	22.4
1943	16.8 [3]	15.7 [4]	20.5	22.1	24.8	12.6	62.3	25.1	0.0	79.0	21.0
1944	20.1 [3]	18.6 [4]	20.6	20.6	20.0	15.8	58.3	25.9	0.1	80.8	19.1
1945	...	...	...	...	...	18.3	62.3 [5]	19.4 [6]	0.0	84.8	15.2
1946	...	...	...	...	...	15.7	67.7 [5]	16.6 [6]	0.0	81.3	18.7
1947	...	...	...	...	...	15.9	68.2 [5]	15.9 [6]	0.1	86.0	13.9
Persons cov. (thousands)	189 [7]					47 000 [8]			.		

Date	Europe *(concl.)*											
	France			Sweden [9]				Switzerland				
	Per week			Per week [10]				Per week				
	Under 40 h.	40 h.	Over 40 h.	Up to 40 h.	41-47 h.	48 h.	Over 48 h.	Under 36 h.	36.0-47.9 h.	48 h.	Over 48 h.
1937	6.7	84.9	8.4	4.6	41.9	36.5	17.0	.	.	.	.
1938	21.5	76.6	1.9	8.5	46.1	36.6	8.8	2.8	22.1	69.9	5.2
1939	11.1 [11]	63.2 [11]	25.7 [11]	16.3	58.0	12.3	13.4	1.7	14.2	71.8	12.3
1940	.	.	.	10.2	40.2	29.5	20.1	1.2	14.7	66.6	17.5
1941	32.5	42.5	25.0	7.1	42.3	31.6	19.0	0.8	18.3	69.7	11.2
1942	19.6 [12]	40.9 [12]	39.4 [12]	4.4	45.4	29.8	20.4	0.8	20.2	70.6	8.4
1943	6.6	23.9	69.5	3.1	47.8	31.9	17.2	0.7	20.3	70.9	8.1
1944	12.3	23.3	64.4	2.7	51.5	27.3	18.5	0.9	17.5	73.8	7.8
1945	11.1	34.8	54.1	3.2	49.1	27.0	20.7	0.3	16.1	75.8	7.8
1946	3.9	40.3	55.8	3.3	55.6	23.1	18.0	0.0	12.5	77.5	10.0
1947	1.5	31.0	67.5	...	...	...	...	0.0	11.8	79.4	8.8
Persons cov. (thousands)	2 200 [13]			479 [14]				342 [15]			

[1] Up to 1939, overtime excluded; figures for the month of highest employment. [2] Bureau of the Census; non-agricultural employment including self-employed; Oct. of each year. [3] Up to 43 h. [4] 44-47 h. [5] 40-48 h. [6] 49 h. and over. [7] Average for 1944. [8] Oct. 1947. [9] Including mining. [10] Annual figures: from 1933 to 1937 and from 1940 to 1946, Nov. figures; 1938, July; 1939, June. [11] Jan.-July. [12] Mar., June, Sept. [13] Jan. 1947. [14] Nov. 1946. [15] Average for 1947.

Methods of Computation of Statistics

Employment Statistics [1]
(Continued)

ASIA

India

MANUFACTURING EMPLOYMENT SERIES

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

Statistics of employment in factories are collected annually under the Factories Act of 1934. The figures published relate to the average number of workers employed during the year. The averages are collected on the basis of the daily attendance covering "persons employed whether for wages or not in any manufacturing process or in cleaning any parts of the machinery or premises used for a manufacturing process or in any other kind of work whatsoever pertaining to or connected with the manufacturing process", but not including "any person solely employed in a clerical capacity in any room or place where no manufacturing process is being carried on". Factories employing less than 20 persons and not using power are excluded from the series unless they are notified by the Government for certain purposes of the Act. Public utilities, such as water pumping stations, electricity generating stations and telegraphs, are included.

The figures are reported by the establishments, compiled by the provincial Governments and consolidated by the Central Government.

The figures relate to the whole territory of former British India.

Publication.

Source: Department of Labour: *Indian Labour Gazette.*

There is a delay of about nine months in the final publication of the All-India figures; from 1946, half-yearly returns on employment are being called for and attempts are being made to reduce the time lag.

Similar series exist for mining and railways and for the tea plantations in Assam.

Palestine

GENERAL EMPLOYMENT SERIES; MANUFACTURING EMPLOYMENT SERIES [2]

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

The branches of industrial activity covered are mining, manufacturing, building and construction, transport and communications; public services are partly covered, but entered under the relevant branch, *e.g.*, manufacturing industry, transport or construction. Mining includes potash, salt and stone quarries. Electricity and water are included as a subgroup under manufacturing industry; railways are entered under manufacturing industry, construction or transport according to their relevant sections.

The series covers wage earners and salaried employees and includes piece workers working within the factory.

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[1] For notes on employment statistics in countries of Africa and America, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. LIX, No. 1, January 1949, pp. 114-121.

[2] Including series of total hours worked.

The figures of employed persons are limited to those actually at work ; persons on unpaid or paid vacation or holiday, on strike, on temporary military leave or temporarily laid off are excluded.

The figures relate to the full calendar month, but employers are permitted to give returns for other pay periods which are later completed to one-month periods.

Annual figures are geometric averages of the monthly index numbers.

It is estimated that 65 to 70 per cent. of the total number of workers is included in the series.

Computation.

The index was first based on January 1938 = 100. In January 1943 the list of establishments covered was revised and new establishments were added to the sample. A chain index system has been introduced since January 1946. Figures are not adjusted for seasonal variations.

Although the new sample is in composition quite different from the old one, a conversion factor has been calculated which provides a link between the index numbers based on January 1943 and the index numbers of the old sample based on January 1938.

Publication.

Source : *General Monthly Bulletin of Current Statistics* ; *Statistical Abstract of Palestine.*

No advance press release is issued and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the indexes refer is approximately three to four months.

EUROPE

Austria

General Employment Series

Social Insurance Statistics

Scope.

The main categories of persons liable to sickness insurance are as follows : all employed persons in all branches of economic activity, including agriculture, forestry, transport, mining, public services and the liberal professions, with the exception of small groups of public employees (municipal and provincial). The series also includes a large proportion of self-employed persons, *e.g.*, self-employed artisans (except in the Tyrol and Vorarlberg), owners of hotels, restaurants, etc., in Vienna, Lower Austria and Burgenland, and finally licensed businessmen in the province of Vienna.

The numbers of wage earners and of salaried employees are published separately. In general, a classification according to occupational groups is not given, but the following are shown separately : mining, agriculture and forestry, transport, and civil servants.

Liability to sickness insurance exists only in so far and so long as a person is in employment.

Monthly figures refer to the last day of the month ; yearly figures are arithmetic averages of the monthly figures.

The number of insured persons is established by the various funds every month on the basis of their registers of entries and departures.

Publication.

Source : *Statistische Nachrichten* ; Military Government, United States Zone : *Report of the United States High Commissioner.*

No advance press release is issued and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the figures refer is approximately two months.

Czechoslovakia

General Employment Series

Social Insurance Statistics

Scope.

This series shows fluctuations of employment under two headings: private establishments on the one hand, and the total of private and public establishments on the other.

The branches of economic activity included in the series are as follows: for private establishments: agriculture and forestry, mining, manufacturing industry and handicrafts, construction, public utilities, commerce, hotels, restaurants, etc., banking, finance and insurance, private transport, domestic and personal services, public health, professions and miscellaneous; in the public field: public transport (rail- roads and post, telegraph and telephone), tobacco manufacture, public employees and Catholic clergy.

The figures cover wage earners and salaried employees.

They include all persons subject to compulsory insurance. Any person under contract of work for wages or salary must join a sickness insurance institution. This obligation is general and applies to both employee and employer, and is independent of age, sex, nationality, kind of work, status or level of wages or salaries, etc. Persons undergoing military service are exempt since they are covered by the military health service.

Workers on paid or unpaid holiday or vacation are included in the figures; the following categories, on the other hand, are excluded: strikers, workers doing military service, and workers temporarily laid off. The series covers only persons actively engaged in work and excludes recipients of long-term insurance pensions (invalidity, old-age, etc.) not actually engaged in work even when continuing to be insured. Another category not considered are home workers, owing to the special character of their work, though they too are liable to insurance.

Wage earners and salaried employees working in private establishments are counted on the basis of monthly averages in order to avoid the influence of daily fluctuations typical for these groups of insured persons; insured persons in public services, on the other hand, are counted as a rule on the last day of the month and this count is taken as the equivalent of a monthly average.

Yearly averages are arithmetic averages of monthly figures.

The National Insurance Act of 15 April 1948 unified all existing sickness insurance institutions and extended the scope of the insurance to all independent workers.

The coverage within the limits set above is complete.

The base year for index numbers is 1937. No changes in methods have taken place since that date.

Members employed are classified each month by sex and industry, but not by occupation as yet.

Publication.

Source: *Statistical Bulletin of Czechoslovakia*; *Renseignements Statistiques.*

No advance press release is issued and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the figures refer is approximately two months.

Manufacturing Employment Series [1]

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

Not all manufacturing branches are included in the series. One category of establishments excluded are those organised compulsorily in the Central Handicrafts Association; different criteria are adopted in different industrial branches to decide whether or not a given establishment should be considered as belonging to this category (and therefore required to join the organisation). In such branches as mining, gas, electricity and water, printing, etc., establishments are not classed under handicrafts, whatever their size. Furthermore, if an industrial establishment is only a branch of an organisation belonging to a different major branch of economic activity (commerce, transport, etc.), workers in such an establishment are not included in the series.

The series covers mining and part of construction; it also includes gas, electricity and water supply.

Figures cover wage earners and salaried employees, as well as active proprietors. All persons belonging to a certain establishment are included regardless of whether actually at work or not. The following categories are included: workers on paid or unpaid vacation or holidays, and strikers; workers performing military service are excluded; the concept of workers temporarily laid off is not used.

The figures refer to the end of the month.

Annual figures are arithmetic averages of monthly figures.

Persons covered by this series represent approximately 23 per cent. of the total number of persons employed in Czechoslovakia (including in this total agriculture, handicrafts, commerce, civil servants, etc.).

The base for the indices is 31 December 1937. No changes of method have taken place since that date.

A series adjusted for seasonal variations is not published.

The series on total hours (published since January 1946) covers wage earners only.

Publication.

Source: *Renseignements Statistiques.* More detailed data are published in the *Industrial Reports* of the Statistical Office of the Czech Republic.

The interval between the date of first publication of the general figures and the date to which they refer is one month; the more detailed statements are published after an interval of three to four months.

Denmark

Manufacturing Employment Series: Numbers Employed

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

The series covers all branches in manufacturing, excluding building but including public utilities.

The figures are based on a yearly production census covering all establishments subject to the Factory Inspection Act (usually those employing five workers or more).

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[1] Including series of total hours worked.

Persons covered include production workers and other wage earners (firemen, guards, etc.); home workers (5,000 in 1946, mostly in the clothing branch) are also included.

Numbers of wage earners employed are shown separately by sex and age (under 18 years and over 18 years).

Indices are based on the year 1931.

Publication.

Source: *Produktionsstatistik.*

MANUFACTURING EMPLOYMENT SERIES: TOTAL HOURS WORKED

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

The series covers all branches in manufacturing industry, excluding building and public utilities.

Establishments with less than five employees and handicrafts are excluded.

The series covers wage earners only, in some 400 large establishments employing approximately 50 per cent. of the total number of wage earners in manufacturing industry.

It includes wage earners actually at work, workers on paid vacation, etc.; it does not cover strikers, workers on temporary military service and workers temporarily laid off.

The figures are averages for all days in the month.

Annual figures are arithmetic averages of monthly figures and are revised later on the basis of the results of the annual production census.

Indices are based on the year 1935; no changes in methods have taken place since 1937, but this series is undergoing major revisions at the present time.

Publication.

Source: *Statistiske Efterretninger.*

Indices are published approximately three weeks after the date to which they refer.

Finland

MANUFACTURING EMPLOYMENT SERIES [1]

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

Since 1941 the series includes manufacturing industry, building, public works of cities and small towns and certain public works of the State; figures published by the I.L.O. cover manufacturing industry only.

Building is excluded from the series published by the I.L.O, and also the printing industry; public utilities are included in the broader series under public works of cities and small towns.

The series covers wage earners only. Workers on paid or unpaid vacation or holiday are included; those on strike, doing military service or temporarily laid off are excluded.

The proportion covered by the series in 1944 was 39.2 per cent.

Computation.

Figures refer to the first pay period of each quarter.

Annual figures are arithmetic averages of quarterly figures.

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[1] Including series of total hours worked.

The information is obtained directly from the various industrial establishments, from building contractors and from the various public authorities concerned.

Index numbers are based on the preceding quarter and on the corresponding quarter of the preceding year.

In view of the great changes brought about by the war and by the changes in the territory of the country, the number of industrial establishments included in this series was increased from 191 to 283 in 1941, and at the same time construction, certain State and municipal public works (towns with a population of 5,000 or more) were included in the series.

Publication.

Source : *Social Tidskrift.*

No advance press release is issued and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the figures refer is from five to six months.

France

General Employment Series ; Manufacturing Employment Series [1]

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

All non-agricultural branches of economic activity are covered by this series except : mining ; food, drink and tobacco ; water, gas and electricity ; inland, maritime and air navigation ; post, telegraph and telephone ; public administration ; and domestic service.

The figures include all persons, whether actually at work or not, who belong to the establishment, excluding entrepreneurs.

The following categories of workers are included : workers on paid or unpaid vacation or holiday and strikers. Workers performing temporary military service and workers temporarily laid off are excluded.

Figures refer to the personnel of the establishment on the first working day of the first month of each quarter.

No annual figures have been computed so far, the present series beginning on 1 January 1946.

Figures are computed on the basis of questionnaires sent out to the various establishments through the provincial offices of the Factory Inspectorate.

It is estimated that from 58 to 60 per cent. of the establishments with more than ten wage earners, and from 72 to 75 per cent. of the employees of these establishments, are covered by the series.

The base for index numbers is April 1939 ; no changes have taken place since the beginning of the present series in January 1946.

A series adjusted for seasonal fluctuations has not been computed.

Publication.

Source : *Revue française du Travail.*

No advance press release is issued and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the figures refer is approximately three months.

(To be continued)

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[1] Including series of total hours worked.

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Book Notes

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General Report. First Item on the Agenda. International Labour Organisation, Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee, Second Session, Rome, 1949. Report I. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1949. 95 pp. 50 cents; 2s. 6d.

Recruitment and Training in the Construction Industries. Third Item on the Agenda. International Labour Organisation, Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee, Second Session, Rome, 1949. Report III. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1949. 56 pp. 35 cents; 1s. 6d.

Record of the proceedings of the first session of this committee of the International Labour Organisation, and reports on two of the questions placed on the agenda of the second session (to be held at Rome in February 1949) in accordance with resolutions adopted at the first session. The record of the first session also contains the substance of the report prepared by the Office to serve as a basis for discussion. The general report submitted to the second session reviews the action taken on the conclusions of the first, and describes recent progress in the industry.

The Protection of Young Workers Employed Underground in Coal Mines. Second Item on the Agenda. International Labour Organisation, Coal Mines Committee, Third Session, 1949. Report II. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. 40 pp. 35 cents; 1s. 6d.

Report on one of the questions which the Governing Body placed on the agenda of the third session of the Coal Mines Committee (to be held in April 1949), thus giving effect to a resolution adopted by the Committee at its second session (Geneva, 1947).

La formation professionnelle des adultes en Belgique. Vocational Training Monograph No. 2. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. iv+84 pp. Illustrated. 50 cents; 2 Sw. francs. (English edition in preparation.)

Vocational Training of Adults in the United States. Vocational Training Monograph No. 3. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. vi+223 pp. Illustrated. $1.25; 6s. 3d.

The second and third of a series of monographs published by the Office on vocational training and retraining in various countries.[1]

The bulk of the report on Belgium is devoted to a study of a particular aspect of the problem, namely, measures taken by the Government for the vocational training of the unemployed. The second and third parts illustrate the measures adopted in industry for two important groups of workers : railwaymen and foremen.

The report on vocational training of adults in the United States, after a historical survey, describes in separate chapters the training given under the Federal-State vocational education programme, apprentice training, training conducted by private undertakings, training-within-industry programmes for supervisory workers, training activities of trade unions and the provision made for the special training needs of ex-service personnel, women and disabled workers. The volume concludes with a select bibliography.

La participation des organisations professionnelles à la vie économique et sociale en France. Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 9. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. viii+237 pp. $1.25 ; 5 Sw. francs. (English edition in preparation.)

The problem of industrial relations, which has been in the forefront of the activities of the International Labour Organisation ever since its foundation, was placed on the agenda of the 30th Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, 1947), and in this connection the Governing Body instructed the Office to undertake an extensive international enquiry into the methods of collaboration between the public authorities and employers' and workers' organisations. The present report, on the participation of occupational organisations in economic and social activities in France, is the outcome of a study made on the spot in pursuance of these instructions and relates to the situation early in 1948. It analyses the laws and regulations in force and describes their operation under the three main heads of collaboration on the national and departmental level, in nationalised industries and undertakings and on the level of the undertaking.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

SWEDEN

Internationella arbetsorganisationen, XXI : Arbetskonferensens tjugoåttonde och tjugonionde sammanträden m.m. (1946). Delegationen för det internationella socialpolitiska samarbetet. Stockholm, Kungl. Boktryckeriet ; P. A. Norstedt & Söner, 1948. vii+159 pp.

Year-book for 1946 on the International Labour Organisation published by the Swedish Delegation for International Collaboration in Social Questions, dealing principally with the 28th and 29th Sessions of the Conference, the decisions of which are reproduced in full. An account is also given of other I.L.O. meetings held during the year (Governing Body, industrial committees, Third American Regional Labour Conference, various committees of experts) and of the measures taken in Sweden in connection with I.L.O. activities.

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[1] For a note on the series and on the first monograph, dealing with the United Kingdom, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVIII, No. 4, October 1948, p. 569.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Les contrats des travailleurs et les juridictions du travail. By R. GEYSEN. Brussels, Maison Ferd. Larcier, S.A., 1948. 395 pp.

A conspectus of Belgian law on employment contracts and labour courts. All the problems that may arise out of the respective rights and obligations of employers and workers (including those engaged in shipping or inland navigation) in this field are grouped by subject-matter, and the law and practice on each is fully indicated.

La pensée syndicale française. By Robert GŒTZ-GIREY. Cahiers de la Fondation nationale des Sciences politiques, No. 3. Paris, Librairie Armand Colin, 1948. 173 pp.

The purpose of this book is to bring out the more lasting characteristics of French thought on the trade union movement as expressed by its leaders and by jurists and economists. The author distinguishes between two main tendencies : the revolutionary and the integrated, constructive movements, and finds representatives of the latter among Liberal economists, jurists and members of the Catholic social movement as well as in the Christian and C.G.T. trade unions. In conclusion, he studies the new problems facing the trade unions and the relations of the movement with the State, economic organisations and the various trades.

Colonial Policy and Practice. A Comparative Study of Burma and Netherlands India. By J. S. FURNIVALL. Issued in co-operation with the International Secretariat and the Institute of Pacific Relations. Cambridge University Press, 1948. xii+565 pp. 36s.

After his detailed study of the Netherlands Indies issued in 1939, the author has concentrated on Burma, and in this new book he makes a comparison between the two countries. He compares the results of the different systems of administration, and he sees the many troubles in Burma, economic as well as social, as the result of the system of administration which has been followed there. The characteristics of this system were : direct rule, unification of law, and the fact that the administrative officers combined their administrative with judicial functions. The author describes and compares the results of the preventive system of administration, of the kind followed in the Netherlands Indies, with the more repressive system followed in Burma. The last chapter is a plea for international collaboration, especially in the form of regional councils.

British Colonies in World Trade. By F. V. MEYER. Issued under the auspices of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. London, New York, Toronto, Geoffrey Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, 1948. xvi+281 pp. ; tables, charts. 15s.

Evaluation of the commercial policies applied to the British colonial empire during the period 1929-1938 is the central theme of this work. It examines in particular the effects of the complicated system of imperial preference in force during the period and seeks to provide the answer to a fundamental question of policy : how does imperial preference compare with its two principal alternatives, free trade and economic regionalism, from the point of view of furthering the trade of British colonies ?

While an attempt to answer such a question necessarily involves a debatable train of assumptions, the conclusions reached are well argued and well documented. They are summarised in the final chapter of the study, in the form of an ideal trade policy from the colonial point of view.

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Demands for Labor : Opportunities for Research. By Dale YODER. New York, Social Science Research Council, 1948. 50 cents.

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Formats et classement des plans. Numérotation des modèles, des pièces, inventaires, etc. By Georges MIRGAUX. Brussels, Editions Bieleveld, 1948. 24 pp. Diagrams, etc. 15 francs.

Les fraudes fiscales. By Dr. Gustave LACHENAL. Zurich and Neuchâtel, Service d'édition de la Société suisse des commerçants, 1948. 72 pp.

A Monograph on Handloom Weaving Industry in India. By M. P. GANDHI. Bombay, Gandhi and Co., 1948. 80 pp. 1 rupee 8 annas.

New Views on Apprenticeship. By W. MCLAINE. London, Staples Press Ltd., 1948. 198 pp. 10s. 6d.

People come First. By Jessica SMITH. New York, International Publishers, 1948. vi+254 pp.

Précis de législation industrielle et sociale. By Paul HAIDANT. 3rd edition. Liége, Imprimerie Vaillant Carmanne, 1948. 295 pp. 250 francs.

Training Employees and Managers. By Earl G. PLANTY, William S. MCCORD and Carlos A. EFFERSON. New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1948. xiii+298 pp. $5.

Trends in American Capitalism. Labor Research Association. New York, International Publishers, 1948. 125 pp. $1.50.

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[1] Mention in this list does not preclude publication of a book note in a subsequent issue of the *Review*.

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